DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 358 712 FL 021 255

TITLE	Training for Sustainability of ELT Aid Projects. Dunford House Seminar Report (England, United Kingdom, July 23-28, 1990).
INSTITUTION	British Council, London (England).
PUB DATE	91
NOTE	77p.; For other Dunford House Seminar proceedings, see FL 021 247-257.
AVAILABLE FROM	English Language Division, The British Council, Medlock Street, Manchester M15 4AA, England, United Kingdom.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Case Studies; Developing Nations; *Economic Development; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Foreign Countries; Higher Education; Instructional Effectiveness; *Long Range Planning; Models; *Program Effectiveness; Program Evaluation; Second Language Instruction; *Second Language Programs; *Technical Assistance
IDENTIFIERS	India (West Bengal); Pakistan; Philippines; Sierra Leone; South Africa; Tanzania; Togo

ABSTRACT

Proceedings of a seminar on English second language teaching (ELT) in technical assistance programs, focusing on elements that contribute to program continuance, are presented in the form of summaries of presentations and case studies. Topics include: the effects of the training provided on the sustainability of the training projects themselves; large classes; placement policy; sustaining programs in normal circumstances; host institution development; factors contributing to project breakdown and project sustainability; categories of personnel involved in projects; training for the management of local institutions; conversations of British agents with their overseas counterparts concerning their role and needs; the host organization's role; effects of training in the United Kingdom to project sustainability; creating models of project management; teaching and learning in context; evaluation of technical cooperation training; and the principles underlying the evaluation of training. Case studies for West Bengal (India), Togo, Tanzania, Sierra Leone, the Philippines, Pakistan, and South Africa are also included. (MSE)

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Dunford Seminar Report 1990

Training for sustainability of ELT aid projects

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The British Council

Dunford Seminar Report 1990

Training for sustainability of ELT aid projects

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All enquiries to

English Language Division
The British Council
10 Spring Gardens
London SW1A 2BN

Engraving of Dunford House, near Midhurst, West Sussex, where the seminar has generally been held since 1979, by Sue Scullard

Published by
The British Council 1991

c The British Council 1991

Cover printed in Britain by
TWP Services Ltd

The Dunford House Seminar

This is an annual residential seminar run by the English Language Division of the British Council. It focuses on ODA-funded ELT projects and serves as a forum for the exchange of ideas and experience through the participation of ELT professionals involved in various areas of project delivery. These include British Council career officers, British Council contract, ODA-funded, English Language Teaching Officers (ELTOs), UK Higher Education ELT specialists and representatives from private sector institutions. The seminar functions as a think-tank on the design, implementation and evaluation of ELT projects. The report is distributed to a wide readership in the profession in the UK and throughout the developing world.

Previous seminar topics

1978 ESP course design

1979 ELT course design

1980 Communicative methodology

1981 Design, evaluation and testing in English language projects

1982 Teacher training and the curriculum

1983 Design and implementation of teacher-training programmes

1984 Curriculum and syllabus design in ELT

1985 Communication skills training in bilateral aid projects

1986 Appropriate methodology

1987 ELT and development: the place of English language teaching in aid programmes

1988 ELT in development aid: defining aims and measuring results

1989 Managing ELT aid projects for sustainability

English Language Division
The British Council
10 Spring Gardens
London SW1A 2BN

Acknowledgements

The English Language Division of the British Council would like to thank the staff of Dunford House and its Principal, Dr Denis Payne, for their continued assistance and co-operation which ensured the smooth running of this year's seminar and the comfort of the participants.

Further acknowledgements are due to:

- Longman Group UK Ltd for permission to quote from An introduction to English language teaching by John Haycraft.
- Macmillan and Co Ltd for permission to quote from Large classes by Rob Nolasco and Lois Arthur.
- Oxford University Press for permission to quote from The teaching of English abroad by F.G. French.

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Overview

Training for sustainability

'While education provides the base on which the acquisition of skills is later built, training is the vehicle by which knowledge and experience are focused. It is the means by which we help to develop the human resource base in developing countries by offering the opportunity to improve vocational or professional skills.'

Into the nineties: an education policy for British aid, ODA, 1990

Training is the core activity in the overwhelming majority of ODA-funded ELT projects. It is the main means of delivering institutional development and enabling educational systems in the developing world to move towards greater self-reliance in this field. In ELT, as in all human resource development projects, it is a strong factor in promoting sustainability. Hence this year's Dunford Seminar theme.

'Training for sustainability' owes its origin to the 1989 Dunford Seminar, 'Managing ELT aid projects for sustainability', when a debate was held on the relative importance of project inputs for sustainability. Six different forms of input were considered: training, consultancies, educational technology, professional advice, university links, and books. Of these, training was judged to be pre-eminent. This year's seminar attempted to determine methods of enhancing the sustainability of ODA-funded ELT projects by investigating current means of delivery, both of in-country and UK-based training. Seminar inputs comprised guest speaker presentations, discussions and case studies which were based on selected live ELT projects. This report is a tangible output and it is hoped that it will be read by all decision-makers involved in the design and implementation of ELT projects.

The report consists of summaries of the various presentations and accounts of the different case studies. A number of recommendations were made and these are included at the beginning for consideration by those in positions of authority concerned with project-related training. These capture some of the prominent concerns currently being voiced by representatives of UK higher education institutions, seven of which were represented at Dunford on a full-time basis, as well as recommendations made by English language teaching officers (ELTOs) and ELT-aid recipients. Among the issues raised were the role of training within the project, the provision of information to all participants in a project involved in training, channels of communication, evaluation of training, placement of trainees in the UK, appropriateness of training, and the balance between UK and in-country training.

The seminar keynote address was given by Roger Bowers, British Council, who examined a range of relationships between projects and training, raising numerous issues which have profound implications for sustainability. In doing so, Dr Bowers provided an intellectual framework for analysing the seminar theme in depth. The issues raised were further examined in subsequent seminar sessions.

Appropriate training was examined in the context of large classes and low-level resourcing in terms of both human and physical factors. Presentations were given by Hywel Coleman of Leeds University and Gerry Abbot of Manchester University. Both underscored the importance of understanding the local educational context and ensuring that UK training courses are fully compatible with it.

The placement of training award holders on UK ELT courses was discussed by Roger Woodham, British Council, who described British Council placement policy and the services provided. He identified means of improving placement procedures that included a better dialogue with the UK institutions and the closer monitoring of trainees' progress.

Factors that affect institutional development were presented by Kevin Sparkhall, ODA. The design of projects should take on a broad perspective and include an institutional appraisal examining such aspects as management, the economic environment and commitment at the appropriate level of government. On the basis of this information, suitable training for sustainable institutional development can be better determined.

Evaluation of training was handled systematically by Pauline Rea Dickens of Ealing College. The importance of using an appropriate evaluation system cannot be under-estimated if training is to be appropriate and lead to project sustainability. Norman Leigh gave an account of the British Council's own evaluation procedures for UK training which have been developed by its Technical Co-operation and Training Department. The chief concern is quality control, to ensure that good standards of administration and support are being achieved. Until the A2 and A2a forms have been redesigned to cater for projectization, inefficiencies in project training will remain a risk, and rigorous evaluation of training will be problematical.

This year's seminar departed from previous practice by inviting collaboration from Moray House College and the University of Warwick. Each institution took over the organization and presentation of a day's session within the overall structure of the seminar. Moray House investigated a wide range of issues connected with in-country training, while Warwick scrutinized UK training, but also looked at the roles of ELTOs and 'counterparts' (nomenclature which, incidentally, is not favoured by the project partners who attended the seminar). The involvement of these two institutions contributed significantly to the success of the seminar and their crests are featured on the cover of this report in recognition of their invaluable co-operation.

A further innovation this year was participation for the first time by project staff from Brazil, Pakistan and the Philippines. They added a new and essential dimension to the Dunford seminar. For the first time it was not exclusively a forum for UK experts; aid recipient stakeholders were also able to present their views and concerns. Their participation made case studies more meaningful. It is hoped that their attendance at Dunford will directly affect the work of the projects in which they are involved and assist in promoting south-south dialogue in ELT. Similarly, the participation of ELTOs should be looked on as inputs to their respective projects. This is now the basis for

ODA funding and is likely to remain so for subsequent Dunford seminars.

This was the thirteenth Dunford seminar, an indicator of its sustainability. The evaluation conducted during the final session confirmed that the participants felt that attendance had been extremely worthwhile. It is hoped that the seminar report will succeed in raising awareness of the issues among the ELT aid constituency and lead to a resolution of some of the significant problems in project-related training and thence to improved sustainability. This was my fifth Dunford seminar, my first as course director. I should like to express my gratitude to the guest speakers, Moray House College and Warwick University, Kevin Van Cauter for administrative support, financial support from ODA geographical desks and the sustained abilility shown by my co-director, Tony Jones, in assisting with the planning, implementation and evaluation of this seminar.

David J Clarke
Adviser ELT Aid

Seminar programme

Dunford House Seminar 1990

23-28 July 1990

Seminar programme

Theme: **Training for sustainability**

Monday 23

11.00 Participants arrive

11.30 Welcome to Dunford House - Denis Payne, Director Dunford House

11.35 General introduction to seminar - David Clarke, Tony Jones and Kevin Van Cauter, British Council, ELD

11.45 Keynote address - Roger Bowers, Controller ELD, British Council

13.00 Lunch

14.00 The Lancaster/Leeds Project on Teaching Large Classes: Hywel Coleman, University of Leeds

15.00 UK training: placement policy - Roger Woodham, British Council

15.30 Tea

15.45 Sustaining ELT in normal circumstances - Gerry Abbot, University of Manchester, School of Education

16.45 Institutional development - Kevin Sparkhall, ODA

19.00 Dinner

Tuesday 24

(Day organized and presented by Moray House)

Topic: **Planning for sustainability in in-country training projects**

09.00 Why do projects break down? - Patricia Ahrens

10.15 What are the factors that contribute to sustainability? - Jim Morrison

11.00 Coffee

11.30 Workshop: background to the West Bengal case study/planning task

13.00 Lunch

14.00 Groups work on planning task

15.15 Tea

15.45 Poster display of groups' frameworks

16.30 Identification and summary of main means of ensuring the sustainability of the project

19.00 Dinner

Wednesday 25

(Day organized and presented by University of Warwick)

09.00 Introduction: categories of personnel involved in a project. An examination of issues connected with their relationship - Thelma Henderson

09.30 Training for the management and administration of local institutions - Paul Fordham

10.30 Coffee

10.45 Workshop - conversations with counterparts - their perception of their role and needs - Lorraine Lawrence

12.30 Lunch

13.30 Workshop - the role of ELTOs. What knowledge and skills do they need? - Meriel Bloor

15.00 The contribution UK training makes to the success and sustainability of projects - Thelma Henderson

16.30 Round-up meeting

19.00 Dinner

20.00 Co-operative development - Julian Edge (optional session)

Thursday 26

09.00 Modelling the management of ELT aid projects: defining competencies for training

10.15 Video use in TEFL teacher training - Terry Miles, Geraldine Kershaw

11.15 Coffee

11.30 Introduction to case-studies

12.45 Lunch

14.00 Case-studies:
Togo - Eddie Uprichard
Tanzania - Paul Simmonds
Sierra Leone - Jane Carey

19.00 Dinner

Friday 27

09.00 TCTD and evaluation of TC - Norman Leigh, TCTD, British Council

10.30 Evaluation of training - Pauline Rea Dickins, Ealing College of Higher Education

11.30 Coffee

11.45 Introduction to day's case studies

12.30 Lunch

14.00 Case studies

Philippines	-	Mike Smith/Eunice Torres
Pakistan	-	Rab Shiell/Shazreh Hussein
South Africa	-	Charles Nuttall

19.00 Course dinner

Saturday 28

09.00 Action plans

10.45 Seminar evaluation and closing remarks

12.30 Seminar closes/lunch

Dunford 1990 participants

ELTOs

1	Pat McLaughlin	- Turkey - Mid East Technical University - INSET, syllabus and materials development
2	Simon Ingram-Hill	- Sudan - Ahlia College, Omdurman
3	Jane Carey	- Sierra Leone - University of Sierra Leone - INSET, syllabus revision
4	Mike Smith	- Philippines - University of the Visayas Fisheries Project - materials development
5	Eddie Uprichard	- Togo - University de Benin - INSET, Syllabus and materials development
6	Charles Nuttal	- South Africa - Molteno Project - INSET in primary schools
7	Rab Shiel	- Pakistan - National Academy of Higher Education, Islamabad - INSET
8	Paul Simmonds	- Tanzania, English Language Teaching Project
9	Chris Pearson	- Turkey - Bogazici University, Istanbul - INSET

Overseas participants

10	Rosinda Ramos	- Brazil - Catholic University Sao Paulo
11	Shazreh Hussain	- Pakistan - National Academy of Higher Education, Islamabad

UK participants

12	Thelma Henderson	- University of Warwick (Centre for English Language Teaching)
13	Patricia Ahrens	- Moray House (Scottish Centre for Education Overseas)
14	Eric Glendinning	- University of Edinburgh (Institute for Applied Language Studies)
15	John Burke	- College of St Mark and St John
16	Rosalyn Hurst	- West Sussex Institute of Higher Education
17	Pauline Barr	- Ealing College of Higher Education
18	Jim Rose	- International House, London
19	Tony Wright	- Christ Church Canterbury

Seminar staff (British Council)

20	David Clarke	- Course organizer
21	Tony Jones	- Assistant course organizer
22	Kevin Van Cauter	- Course admin officer

British Council participants

23	John Whitehead	- ELO Colombia
24	Gill Westaway	- ELO Kenya
25	Leslie Hayman	- Assistant Director Philippines

Training for sustainability

The first day was dedicated to examining issues concerning training and its effect on the sustainability of ELT projects. Following a general introduction to the seminar and its objectives given by David Clarke and Tony Jones there were five sessions presented by guest speakers.

Training for sustainability

Roger Bowers, British Council

Dr Bowers asked the participants to discuss the function of training in projects. He identified three functional areas in which to consider project-related training

- training for organic growth, which he described as a commitment to the objectives of the project taking root in the recipient country
- training for sustainability, which can be considered as ensuring an 'afterlife' for each project, whether predictable or not
- training for extendability, which can be thought of as the way in which a project can generate further developments in the education system

The speaker discussed key training decision-making issues. Who decides what training is required in a project? There are several potential decision makers in the UK and in the recipient country. Who has the authority to make decisions on training? What information is the decision based on? When are such decisions best taken? How much flexibility is desirable? Whoever decides on the nature of the training package, the following factors should be considered

- its relevance to project objectives and mode of delivery
- its integration with other project components
- its role in institutional development
- the form of qualification to be obtained
- its curriculum content, structure and strategies
- the evaluation of training

Other factors to be investigated include

- roles. Who is to be trained? What will the trainees role be after training?
- skills. What do the trainees need to be able to do that they cannot do already?
- availability. How much of the trainee's time can be secured for training?
- commitment. How involved will the trainees be after and as a result of training?
- contact. What support networks exist and how aware are the trainees of these?
- autonomy. How capable will the trainees be of establishing their own agenda?

The speaker identified several further issues for consideration

- is training provision led by supply or demand?
- when can training be judged to be successful?
- what is the relationship between local and outside expertise?
- who arbitrates where project and non-project requirements conflict?

Four models illustrating the relationship between training and project were presented (see fig 1).

a a training component serving a wider project

b a project serving a wider training programme

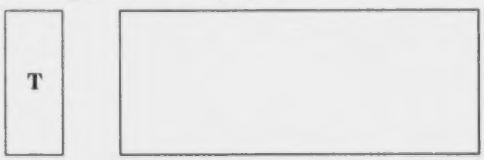
c a training programme existing alongside an independently focused project

d a training programme co-terminous with a project

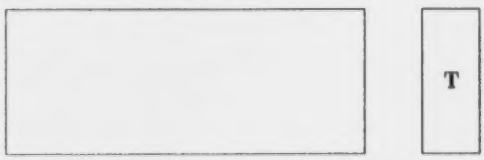
A fifth model was briefly considered: a project without any training.

Finally, five sequential models of the relationship between training and project

1 training precedes the project

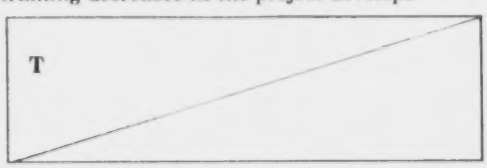


2 training follows the project



3 training increases as the project develops

4 training decreases as the project develops



Models of the relationship of training to project

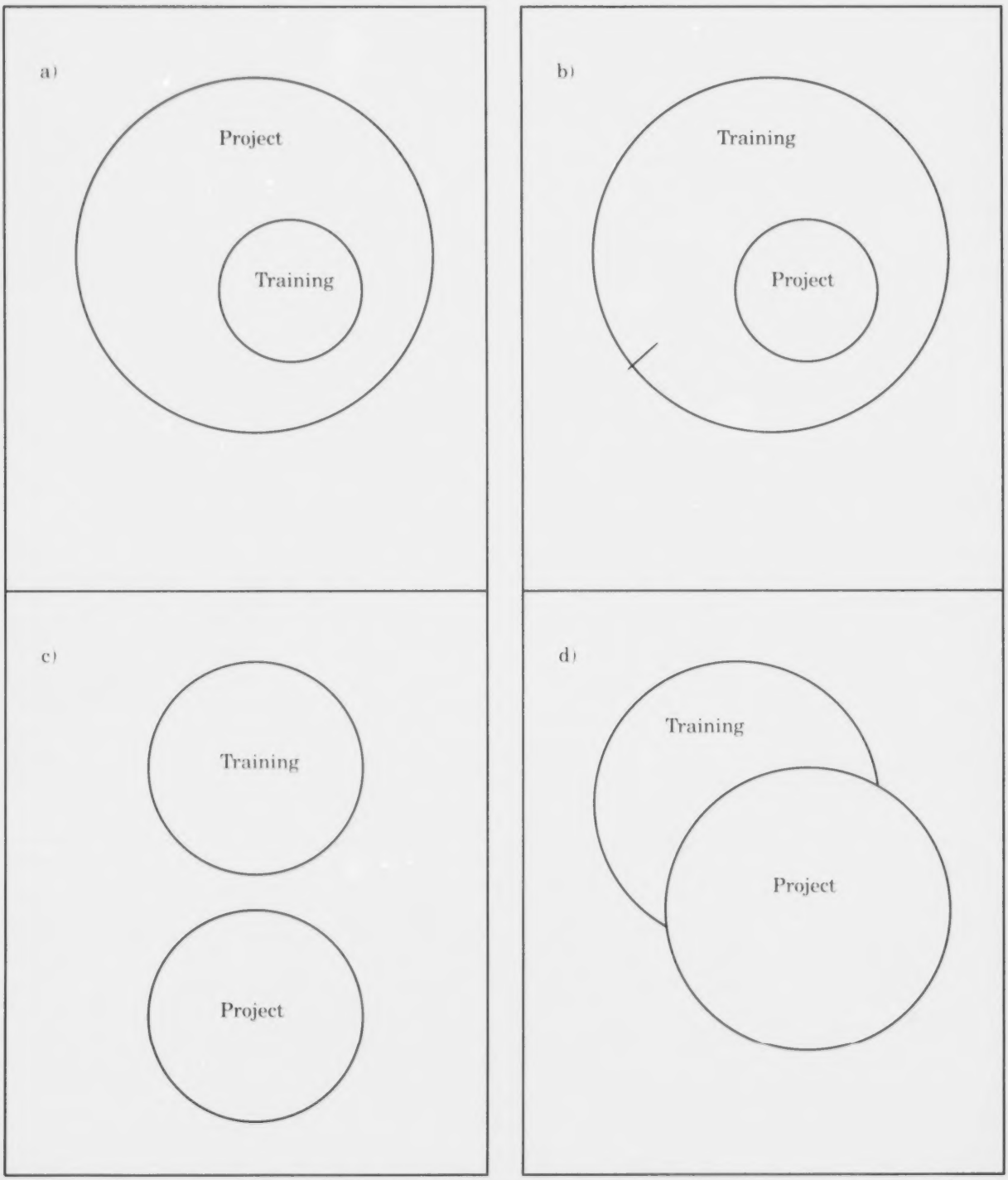
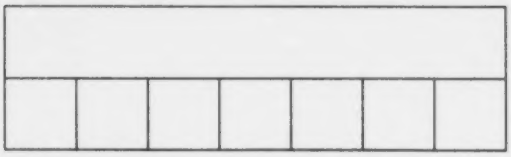


Figure 1

5 training cycle continues throughout the project



Large classes and training for sustainability.

Hywel Coleman, University of Leeds, Overseas Education Unit.

Informed by data gathered by the Lancaster/Leeds research project on Language learning in large classes, this presentation considered the nature and possible causes of teachers' problems with large class teaching, and suggested ways in which a deeper understanding of the phenomenon may help teachers cope better.

The first section of the presentation outlined two phenomena, the distinctive patterns of teacher behaviour and teachers' own reports of their difficulties (see Appendix 1, Phenomena). The first of these, it was suggested, arise from teachers' attempts to reconcile their 'training' with the realities of the classroom situation; teachers' reports, furthermore, suggest that there is a conflict between what a teacher may want to do and what the situation in the classroom allows. Both of these may be seen to arise from assumptions about teaching and learning derived from, for example, training, publications teachers may have read, and so on (see Appendix 1, examples 1-3). This raises issues of the relevance of aspects of much UK training to teachers whose classroom realities are remote from those assumed by many teacher trainers.

Among the implications of the relationships and influences between training courses, pre- and in-service, in-country and in the UK, are the following

- non-native speaking teachers attending UK training may not easily make links between the training and their home situations
- UK institutions need to show that they have insights and something to say about the problems of teaching large classes
- for native-speaker trainees there is the problem of awareness of the need to consider the problem of large class teaching

The proposals suggested (see Appendix 1) are based on the premiss that a deeper understanding by teachers of the problems of large class teaching would help them realize what is and is not feasible and within their control, and help them to think of ways in which they might address those issues that they may have the power to do something about.

Two final points were made. Firstly, the problem of teaching large classes must not be side-stepped; UK institutions and the ELT profession as a whole must do more to address the issue of large classes in under-resourced situations. Secondly, there is the need to realize that this issue will need to be considered throughout a teacher's professional life, and not simply as a one-off module on one training course.

UK training: placement policy

Roger Woodham, The British Council

The role of ELD's UK TEFL Adviser in the placement of overseas students in Britain was outlined. Later discussion focused on complementary adviser roles, overseas and in the UK, and the manner in which closer co-ordination might guarantee speedier placement.

The Council's placement policy does not rest on ensuring equitable distribution around the higher and further education institutions in the UK which offer TEFL/Applied Linguistics programmes. Rather, in the first place, it seeks to ensure that trainees are accommodated on the course which it is considered will best satisfy their needs. Equitable distribution among UK institutions comes second.

The procedure adopted, as far as stand-alone training is concerned, is one of matching the requirement as received from post and as expressed on forms A2 and A2a and supporting documentation, with what is considered to be the best available matching programme in the UK. Thus, the main areas of academic interest, listed in order of priority, together with consideration of the trainee's background, are reconciled with the UK institution which can best provide value-for-money training in these areas.

In volume of activity terms, there are 500-600 longer-term placements each year (Diplomas, MAs, MEds, etc.), and roughly the same number of shorter-term placements of typically three to six months duration. The trend towards projectization will require the placement adviser to act more as a moderator, where necessary, of project proposal and less as an independent decision maker.

Whatever the function, maintaining an updated specialist knowledge centrally of the UK resource requires and will continue to require constant careful monitoring and evaluation of activity. Specialist knowledge is maintained through a continuously updated collection of course brochures and other literature, formative evaluation based on monitoring visits and meetings, discussion with both course providers and course consumers, oral and written reports, and summative evaluation based additionally on completed course evaluation questionnaires and post-course performance.

In the discussion which followed, the importance of balance between project implementers' perceptions of needs and the British Council's role in matching these to the most suitable institutions was stressed. Greater contact between projects and institutions might maximize opportunities for more appropriate matching and clear channels of communication among those responsible for implementing decisions would facilitate appropriate and faster placement.

Sustaining ELT in normal circumstances

Gerry Abbott, School of Education, Manchester

Background

Over the last two decades ELT has increasingly become a profit-making business concentrating on training in the 'paid' sector. The emphasis has therefore shifted away from the majority of learners who are involved in education at school (the 'aid' sector).

The rapid growth in this sector has been boosted by ELT research based on out-of-school and post-school influences and on 'training and use' (cf Wilkins' Council of Europe research which was based on adult, not school children's, needs; and the ESP boom which dealt particularly with the identifiable needs at post-school level and focused specifically on training rather than education). Even the theoretical inputs from socio/psycho-linguistics drew from out-of-school/ pre-school contexts.

Social influence led to the growth in anglocentric textbooks that were oriented at the post-school customer.

This emphasis on the paying customer/anglocentric textbook contradicts the reality which is that the vast majority of ELT learners are in state schools, (especially in SE Asia and West Africa,) and are directly involved in 'education' rather than 'training'.

Differences between the 'aid' and the 'paid' sectors

The critical difference between operating in 'reality', i.e. the 'normal' state-school system, and the privileged 'abnormal' (non-school) sector, was outlined as differences in

- class size
- teacher qualifications
- provision of resources (both low vs high tech)
- amount of pressure/public expectation
- aims and focus
- teacher status and professionalism (especially of pay and conditions)
- preferred learning style
- exposure to English
- staffing
- opportunities for innovation

Recommendations

- on-the-spot training
- national groups to go to UK for training given by someone who knows their needs
- task force of aid personal with substantial experience of local normal conditions.

(See Appendix 2)

Institutional development

Kevin Sparkhall, ODA

ODA has always been involved in institutional strengthening from the very early days. Originally the emphasis was on the training of individuals for localization programmes at independence. Sustainability was an issue even at this early date. By the 1970s, emphasis was switched to improved planning and monitoring as these factors were seen to constrain development. By the late 1970s, institutional weaknesses led to the development of project frameworks as a response to a need to focus on key priorities and co-ordinate the different sources of aid. Planning, managing, monitoring and sustaining of aid projects especially on the withdrawal of direct TC assistance, became important considerations. In the most recent past there has been a much greater realization of the need to strengthen institutions to ensure that improvements are sustained once direct assistance is withdrawn.

Implications for institutional development

A wide perspective should be taken to include items such as management, budget and external policy. Development efforts are thus more complex, with multi-faceted policy issues. Identification of the best sustainable growth system is difficult, as attention to local issues and integration of local partners in a committed policy for change is required. This process is long-term, two way, and often high risk, demanding a high level of flexibility. Flexibility and accountability demand flexible and appropriate monitoring systems to follow changes through a clear framework. Project frameworks emphasize conditionality and staged approaches. In such ID projects, personal skills are paramount and personnel continuity highly desirable.

Key elements in institutional appraisal

The above builds up a picture of the context in which the project will be working and the ID requirements. Good understanding is not obtained in the short-term or as an outsider, although the outsider does provide skills and comparative knowledge to help produce ideas from within the institution. Frameworks are not limited so that some activities provide immediate practical returns whilst understanding and confidence is built up. Important facets

- review external environment
- agree/define objectives
- review institution structure

- assess management systems
- review management style
- review human resources
- review finances

Conditions for successful implementation

There are no simple prescriptions. Project stages should be seen as a process of iteration rather than as separate entities. A summary of points would include

- commitment at appropriate governmental level
- support and participation within institution
- economic environment
- identification of key constraints and strategy to respond to them
- availability and retention of adequate staff
- access to good consultants, appropriate training resource
- donor willing to take long term view

Documentation

Required. Framework and memorandum are an attempt to ensure that the complexities of a project are fully explored. If a project is first prepared without thorough planning then subsequent completion of framework and memorandum is oppressive and encourages a retreat into bureaucracy.

Comment

- this applies 100% to ELT operations
- the effect of the bureaucracy on rapid change
- devolution of responsibility for decision making ... where are the limits?
- management skills required by ELTO and recipient institutions as appropriate
- publicity/awareness/aid/hardware is the beginning point but it ought to be the planning stage as beginning point
- distorted image take-up of funding. Institute take up for hidden agenda reasons
- chaos theory management possibilities?

(see Appendix 3)

Why do projects break down?

Patricia Ahrens, Moray House College

The decision to extend the teaching of English to classes five, six and seven in Gujarat in the 1970s entailed the in-service training of 30,000 teachers. These teachers were non-graduates who had studied English for only two years at school and had no EFL training. There was an immediate need for widespread training and radio was chosen as the medium. The first programmes appeared in 1979.

Three institutions were involved in the programme.

a All India Radio commissioned scripts, paid script writers, recorded programmes and broadcast on the local network in open time.

b The State Institute of Education (SIE) published and distributed support material, organized teachers' and script writers' conferences and elicited evaluative feedback on programmes.

c The H M Patel Institute of Education, which functioned as the English wing of SIE, designed the radio series, recruited script writers, accepted scripts, edited the support material, ran workshops for script writers and teachers, and carried out evaluation.

There were problems associated with the work of each institution.

a All India Radio. The programmes that were broadcast during school hours were used as input, but those that were broadcast at noon on Saturday attracted no listeners. The script writers could only be used for two six-month periods and therefore there were many of them. Their payment was low but their real reward was fame. The watchdog panel was educated and Westernized.

b The State Institute of Education had little interest or knowledge of skills at the primary level. They had to use Government of India Press which was slow and inaccurate, and the distribution of support materials was erratic.

c The H M Patel Institute of English had little knowledge of the primary school level and it had to find large numbers of script writers with good English, ELT abilities, and primary skills and knowledge. Its job was to co-ordinate the work of these script writers, who had to produce support material before they produced the scripts so that teachers would know what to do with the scripts when they arrived. Although H M Patel was the focus and generator of most of the work, it had no executive authority in the project. The radio work was in no one's job description.

Unfortunately although ideas and solutions were produced, the project broke down. A number of causes of breakdown have been identified

- there was a lack of focus in objectives and in executive authority. A large project like this might be better handled as a cluster of smaller projects. Each project must have clear objectives and executive authority must be lodged with a stated person or people
- there was a lack of adequate management structure; such a structure must be evident to and accepted by all concerned. Without it there is no clear place where change can be initiated
- there was a lack of motivation and incentives for participants in the project. A project plan should take these into consideration. For example, the training should lead to some reward, such as enhanced job satisfaction or financial reward
- there was a lack of adequate evaluation and/or feedback. Procedures for regular evaluation should be included in the plan and these should lead to the the plan being amended where necessary
- there was a lack of interest in and awareness of the project. This problem could be overcome if everyone concerned with the project were better informed and involved in it
- there was over-anxiety about project materials. Where the work of a project depends on materials such as books or radios, the people accountable for the materials must have the confidence to use them, even lose them
- there was a lack of follow-up. Project plans should allow for maintenance work, e.g. replacing materials. They should also aim to develop long-term spin-offs from the main project such as self-study packages, better PRESET and teacher support groups
- there was a lack of commitment by key people. Such people must be prepared to support the work of the project
- the degree of ELT innovation was too big. The project should plan to deliver only the degree of innovation which the receiving system can tolerate
- the general educational innovation was too big. Account must be taken of how the ELT innovation fits in with the general educational ethos of the receiving system
- the language skills of the English teachers were low. Support for the development of teachers' language knowledge and skills, as well as for their professional knowledge and skills, must be included in the project plan
- the model of project transmission was not suitable. All aspects of the chosen mode of project transmission must be examined in the local context

What are the factors that contribute to sustainability?

Jim Morrison, SCEO, Moray House College

The project framework in its current form is concerned with events and not with people. It does not indicate how the participants relate to each other within the project.

There are three possible project outcomes: success, temporary success, or failure. The reasons for the second and third possibilities were explored with reference to the CDELT project at Ain Shams University, Egypt.

Difficulties with this project included: inadequate attention at the planning stage to issues such as the environment of the project (was it housed in the most appropriate institute?); consensus between the institute providing the services and the intended recipients; executive authority and the appointment of local staff.

As a means of anticipating and avoiding such difficulties, two checklists were proposed for making the project framework more sensitive. The first of those, ORACLE, poses six sets of questions

1 **Object** what are the objectives of the planned change?

2 **Resources** what resources are required to implement the change?

3 **Authority** whose authority is required for the implementation?

4 **Consensus** how is consensus built in? How is it ensured that all participants are stakeholders?

5 **Linkage** how are the components of the project linked? How is authority communicated?

6 **Environment** is the project housed in the most appropriate institution?

It was also felt that framework column 'Important assumptions' should be retitled 'Necessary conditions', as too many assumptions were made without checking.

A second, and simpler checklist, SEKS, was described. Its components are

1 **System** Are aid personnel in the right place for maximum effect? What alternative locations exist? Are the project objectives compatible with the location?

2 **Executive authority** whose office has responsibility for this project?

3 **Key personnel** who are the key personnel within the host system?

4 **Stakeholders** what incentives are provided to motivate participants at each level? How are stakeholders created?

Applying these checklists to project frameworks may help ensure sustainability. Neither of them involve questions of ELT training; they are both concerned with the management of people. Management training may be the factor which can ensure the sustainability of a project.

(see Appendix 4)

Case study - West Bengal

Background

In the early 1980s the West Bengal Board of Secondary Education (WBBSE) changed the place of English in the school curriculum. Until then English had been taught from class three to class ten, that is, for three years in the primary school and five years in all state schools. Now no English is taught in the primary school; instruction begins in the secondary school, and lasts for five years, class four to class ten, the examination class. Parents saw the withdrawal of English from primary school as detrimental to primary education.

Change of textbook

With the changed place of English in the curriculum, came a need for a new textbook for the secondary school. The previous textbook had assumed that pupils had covered a certain amount of work; the new series, Learning English, begins from zero. It exemplifies current ELT methodology by, for example, including authentic materials, using task-based learning and assuming that teachers will organize their class to do group work. The Learning English course book is not supported by an accompanying teacher's book. Textbooks were written by UK participants. As the new course was progressively introduced into the schools, the teachers realized that the examinations would have to be changed from a memory/content base to a skill based one. There was concern about where to find competent examiners.

Teachers' perceptions of their needs

As the new series became established in class six and began to work its way up the secondary school, it became clear that teachers of English needed a lot of help with the new approach. The problems the teachers raised were

- pupils have contact with English only during class time
- the quantity of the materials is too great for the allocation of class time
- the approach advocated by the materials cannot be implemented with large classes
- there is no formal grammar teaching
- there is an excessively high vocabulary load
- there is a wide range of topics
- the demands for preparation and implementation which the materials make on the teacher are too high
- it is difficult to assess pupils' progess on the new materials.

In addition, many teachers themselves have difficulty with the language of the textbook: very few understand its underlying rationale. Furthermore the textbook is very dense, and demands advanced reading skills. Added to this, teacher confidence and competence in English is insufficient, and few have had ELT training. Because pay and morale are low many teachers teach privately. The textbook demands supplementary material which the teachers do not have time and energy to prepare.

Current provision for INSET

West Bengal already has in place a number of tools for in-service teacher education, including the following

- two four-month courses per year, each for eighty teachers, at the Institute of English in Calcutta
- week-long training camps for large numbers of teachers held in various places during the holidays
- services of resource persons, most of whom have been trained at one of the above
- in some districts, the resource persons have established teachers' committees to facilitate INSET
- a weekly radio programme for teachers of English scheduled during school hours when, although teachers were supposed to be released so they could listen to it, few did. Programmes were not systematic or theoretical,and not at the right level
- a regular slot on the teaching of English available in the monthly magazine of the WBBSE, Parshad Varta, distributed to all secondary schools

However, West Bengal has around 3,000 teachers of English. All of these teachers are graduates, but not all are graduates in English, or have had pre-service training in ELT. West Bengal covers a large area, divided into seventeen districts, from the foothills of the Himalayas to the Bay of Bengal; within it live people of different caste, language, religion and ethnic origin. These divisions in West Bengal present a number of constraints.

Resources available for a major INSET project

From the West Bengal Board

- two university appointments seconded for five years
- services of the Board's two academic officers, one with TEFL training
- the services of the Board's media officer (an ex-literature teacher)

- administrative support
- transport
- accommodation
- release of teachers to be trained by the project (supply cover was provided)
- the focusing of the resources described above, except for the courses in the Institute

From the Institute of English

- the services of two UK trained members of staff for up to three months a year. These were not always the same people because the Institute regarded the attachments as a form of in-service training.

From the ODA/British Council

- the services of UK consultants; because of Government of India regulations any consultants may not be resident for more than three months per year
- UK training
- administrative support
- books and materials

Introduction: categories of personnel involved in a project. An examination of issues connected with their relationship.

Thelma Henderson, University of Warwick

The presenter began by listing the categories of personnel involved in a project:

Government	
Overseas Ministry	UK Aid Agency
Institutions	
Overseas	UK
Project	
Director (in host institution)	ELTO

Example

Warwick University were asked to take four Angolan study fellows (SFs), following their pre-sessional course in Edinburgh.

Problems

- at the time Warwick were unaware that they were part of a group of eight SFs destined for another receiving institution (Moray House)
- a request was received from the project that, in addition to completing a one-year diploma course, they should be given help with a dissertation for submission to the local institution. As this work was difficult to fit into such an intensive course, it would have to take place after the completion of the diploma
- the group was divided in half according to their level of English. The group at Warwick had scored band 5 on ELTS and therefore would be able to cope with the diploma course. The other group at Moray House, however, were expected to do the diploma and write a dissertation with an ELTS score of only 3.5
- a special meeting was held at Warwick with the four SFs to find out more details on the project so that the diploma course could be made as relevant as possible to the students' needs. Appropriate dissertation topics would also be set. SFs were unable to provide details on the project. They stated that they wanted to complete as much of the dissertation as possible in the UK as back in Angola work demands would prevent them from doing so
- a letter was therefore written to the ELTO Project Co-ordinator requesting further details on the project, proposing an extension of two months to SFs time in the UK, and suggesting an institutional link. The Project Co-ordinator became angry at such 'interference' and there was a temporary breakdown in communication. The request for a two-month extension was turned down

The dismay felt by all parties concerned led to an analysis of the issues to be sorted out in terms of relationships between partners.

Issues

- the way different partners view each other, e.g. aid agencies vs UK institutions. Do aid agencies take institutions into their confidence, or treat them like cafeterias where they buy courses? If they decide they do not like the courses they take away their custom. Aid agencies should be aware that if unexpected decisions as to the placement of SFs are made, institutions may be seriously affected (economic considerations, staffing levels, provision of accommodation). The degree to which courses can be customized may be affected if groups must be merged owing to last-minute cancellations
- the level of English/ELTS/IELTS scores of SFs sent. Institutions are often requested to accept SFs to do MAs with only 3.5 on ELTS. This puts the institution in a difficult position, as even with extra language tuition during their course, SFs are unlikely to make satisfactory progress
- the lack of knowledge on the part of the receiving institution about the project, and on the part of the project about the institution and its procedures. Breakdowns in communication occur through lack of information and territoriality
- students were despondent, feeling that there was no hope of completing their dissertations in either the UK or Angola. Was the writing of a dissertation really on the project agenda? If so, surely better arrangements for its completion should have been made

Conclusion

All parties involved in a project must strive to improve communications and work together more closely so that problems such as those reported in this session can be avoided.

Training for the management and administration of local institutions

Paul Fordham, University of Warwick

Professor Fordham began by emphasizing the paradox of the rigidity of institutions, as against their potential for rapid growth and change. In the context of aid-driven projects, he pointed out that the question did not derive from local concerns, but from the received wisdom of metropolitan institutions imposed on local institutions. Change was usually initiated with the aim of bringing about the growth of institutions, and it is assumed that change and growth are somehow synonymous. However, local concerns did not necessarily coincide with metropolitan concerns or values.

The main part of the talk was focused on general principles for local training, including the relations between research, education and development, and the ways in which we think about these, both in isolation and in relation to each other.

Professor Fordham spoke on four themes to illustrate the general points referred to above. From these he extracted four principles for understanding these complex relationships.

1 Sustainability is guaranteed by changes in attitude and the acquisition of skills to cope with change. Thus the training context needs to be flexible and responsive in order to deal with the rapid changes. In this context, top-down development was mentioned as a demotivating factor. The example of shifts in educational thought from the colonial school ideal to the objectives-driven model of the 1960s; both of these are regarded as inappropriate. A further complicating factor is the speed at which the changes are introduced.

2 Failure of training is likely when there is a gap between the beliefs of the leaders of the movement to change, and those who implement the change, for example the bureaucracy. Tanzania in the 1970s was cited as an example, where the leadership (Nyrere) and the expatriate consultants implemented a top-down, strongly ideological model, very distant from the values, attitudes and beliefs of those who it was supposed to benefit. The result was failure, particularly because the economy was not sufficiently well managed to support a fundamental change such as that proposed by Nyrere.

3 A static state of affairs should never be assumed. The research Professor Fordham carried out at Southampton University in 1980 was cited as an example of this problem, in which a major mismatch was found between course provision at Universities and the reality of local contexts. The study itself mirrored the problem, as it too had only assumed a static context. The notion of an experience-based curriculum was proposed as a solution.

4 Success is most likely when there is a considerable investment of time and energy in a project by those at the grass roots. The case of a literacy project in Bangladesh was cited, in which the context was discussed as a preliminary to the education of illiterate peasants in order to demonstrate the value of the project for these people. This led to fundamental changes in attitude which enabled the landless to use their literacy skills to better themselves and their families' social circumstances.

Key themes in project design and implementation which emerged were

- top-down vs bottom-up approaches
- personal and individual commitment to ideals, ideologies before and during projects
- flexibility vs accountability
- the need for careful exploration of contexts prior to project design and implementation
- personal change and development in the context of projects

Conversations with counterparts: their perceptions of their role and needs

Lorraine Lawrence, University of Warwick

The speaker began by saying that she had observed areas of weakness in the counterpart system

- counterparts are unhappy with the term
- they are unclear about their role(s)
- the relationship between ELTOs and counterparts varies enormously and depends both on the institutions and the personalities involved
- they neither take over the ELTOs job in its entirety, nor - in many cases - remain long in the post after the departure of the ELTO

With this in mind the speaker had devised two questionnaires, one for counterparts to fill in, and one for ELTOs, to investigate their perceptions of the role of the counterpart in a project and the relationship between counterpart and ELTO.

The ELTOs were also asked to reflect upon the validity of the counterpart system.

After a discussion of the responses to the questionnaires, the above hypotheses were indeed borne out. In addition, the following key points emerged

- the reasons for the lack of clarity about the role of the counterparts were the wide range that they perform, lack of a clear definition of roles at the

planning stage, and inadequate briefing on appointment

- counterparts perceived their status as being lower than that of the ELTOs
- the training opportunities deemed to be most important to the counterparts by both groups of respondents were on-the-spot experience and the chance to participate in decision-making from the very start of the project
- neither group considered academic training overseas to be particularly relevant to the needs of projects, despite the status such training confers
- counterparts can only be trained and informed to the level of the ELTO if they participate fully in decision-making and are of equal status

In the round-up, the following suggestions were made

- more than one counterpart needs to be trained for each project
- a group of people from a project - e.g. senior staff in an institution - might be involved in different kinds of training in the UK, thereby becoming stakeholders in the future of the project
- the word 'counterpart' should be abandoned
- training programmes should be an integral part of the project design so as to ensure adequate funding

The role of ELTOs: what knowledge and skills do they need?

Meriel Bloor, University of Warwick

This was an exploration into the knowledge, skills and expertise that might be required by ELTOs, and into the training programmes that could meet these needs.

Approach:	workshop
Groups:	four
Materials:	eight post descriptions, two per group
Tasks:	for each post: to identify the sort of experience or training programmes (including optional components) that the applicants might have taken, and to determine priorities as appropriate.

Summary of feedback

A wide range of skills, knowledge and experience were identified by participants for each post. These could be broadly classified as in two main areas

Professional:	concerned with ELT in its various aspects
Administrative:	including financial, computing, organizational and interpersonal skills, over and above what one might reasonably be expected to have 'picked up' on the job

There was a very definite feeling from the group that, while many of the skills needed could be acquired through normal training courses and their various components and would form part of typical ELTO baggage, there was also a wide and increasing range of requirements that might, in the interests of all, be best acquired through short training courses for ELTOs. The latter included not only general items such as computer skills at an increasing level of complexity, but also job-specific items such as ODA and BC financial and reporting procedures, which applicants could not reasonably be expected to have picked up as part of ELTO baggage. It was generally felt that some small investment by the employers in improved short induction and training courses would result in more effective and efficient ELTOs.

It was also felt that some post descriptions lacked sufficient clarity in that they required to be read together with other documents (e.g. reports/ frameworks) in order to be properly understood, and so would give would-be applicants only the vaguest idea of what the jobs would actually entail. Others seemed to demand a vast and unlikely range of attributes, and involve an enormous if not impossible range of responsibilities. Greater care was felt to be needed in this area.

Minimum qualification: Masters degree and at least five years' relevant experience.

ELT training and/or experience identified:	non-ELT requirements/ attributes
materials development	project management techniques
media skills	database/WP skills
ESP	financial management
needs analysis	office management skills
syllabus design	knowledge of (an)other language (e.g. Arabic, French, etc.)
testing	ability to delegate, communicate
library/ resource centre	knowledge of current (ODA/BC) administrative procedures
self-access learning techniques	sensitivity to other peoples/cultures

The contribution of UK training to success and sustainability of projects

Thelma Henderson, University of Warwick

UK course provisions

Aim to give students experience of what they will need on their return.

Data is required on the students geographical and professional circumstances. Their work on the MA dissertation should be project-related.

Courses should be as individualized as possible within the framework of foundation course, options and dissertation.

The considerable database usefulness of the British Council's guide to TEFL/TESL courses in the UK should be stressed.

Content

Selection of course content by students and ELTOs is important. There is room for adaptation within the university courses for local needs.

Range

A wide range of nationalities, and irregular contact with the area by UK institutions, detracts from the usefulness of many programmes.

Single-nation groups of students are useful for UK institutions, but the institution may then find itself at the mercy of political events.

Documentation

Documentation received from overseas may tell the institution that students can cope but nothing of their individual circumstances.

Students are not always qualified in the way the UK institution would wish for certain courses. There is no agreement on common standards between institutions on admission.

Post selection, full information packs are sent out, but there is little feedback from students until they arrive on their needs or what jobs they are going back to.

Project culture

Projectization has had a profound effect on UK institutions as projects carry specialized training needs. Often, however, there is no special relationship with a project, and the UK institution feels itself to be a mere delivery system. UK institutions would welcome more link projects.

The foregoing affects courses offered. Old courses, particularly MAs, are being revamped and restructured in a modular fashion. Modules can be offered as free-standing units as well as for non-award purposes. Specialized courses can be constructed around client needs. Thus institutes are beginning to specialize.

Teams of staff with knowledge of particular areas can be deployed to meet the needs of projects. There are no systems, but there is a good deal of interest and desire to operate a free-flow between UK institute staff and ELTOs. Problems centre around information networks, flexibility of UK institutions, knowledge matching and time of release/attachments.

Conclusion

UK training can produce personnel who can go back and perform successfully but real success is only possible if the following conditions are met

- UK training must be embedded in the project/ institution
- systems working and communication are essential to sustainability

Counterparts, roles, UK institutions and training - feedback on University of Warwick sessions

In the final session four questions were presented for discussion. There was only time for an exchange of views on questions one and two.

1 What are the chances for ELTOs and ELOs to establish a professional base and the opportunities for updating?

2 What have we identified as problems or weaknesses within the system of counterpart training and have we any solutions to offer?

3 What is the most efficient way of getting in touch with people overseas and also of placing people in British institutions?

4 How can training institutions be embedded within a project?

Question 1

- it was suggested that the framework of British Council staff and specialist courses could be used by ELTOs and the service paid for via ODA funding
- that budget courses encapsulating particular training needs should be more widely available. This refers to the modular items mentioned by Thelma Henderson in the last presentation of the day
- advertising was considered to be a major expenditure area in disseminating information about courses. Costs in this area could be reduced
- the notion of ELTOs being deployed in UK institutions for periods of time between contracts was raised. This was attempted several years ago (by Lancaster University). In this way ELTOs get professional refreshment and institutions get an injection of relevant practical experience from projects overseas. Both groups stand to benefit from such a system. It is, however, the system that is the problem; there is no delivery system to keep all parties aware of possibilities except word of mouth and personal connections which are hardly satisfactory. This would require a database. Large portions of the latter (re ELTOs and their movements) already exists in the British Council; if information from UK institutions could be added to this, matching operations could begin to be extracted

Question 2

- the titles and roles of the 'adviser', plus the rank and status, should be passed on to the counterpart on ELTO withdrawal. Some concrete provision needs to be made here to secure the status of the counterpart
- counterparts were seen as an integral part of a project. There was, however, a groundswell of opinion that considered that groups of people identified within a project would be preferable to point identification on a one-to-one basis
- 'counterpart' as a label was not greeted with enthusiasm by some participants
- it was felt that detailed training plans should be an integral part of the project framework
- uncertainty was expressed over the position and role of counterparts within systems prior to the arrival of the ELTO, whilst the ELTO is in position, during extended UK training and on return to the system

Modelling the management of ELT aid projects: defining the competencies for training

Fred Chambers, West Sussex Institute of Higher Education

This paper was concerned with presenting a model of ELT management, considering how it was devised and the advantages of such a model.

Types of model

There are several types

iconic	-	changing scale
analogic	-	changing the form
analytical	-	mathematical/logical
conceptual	-	pictorial/symbolic
perfective	-	qualitative

Here the focus is on the conceptual model.

Why we need a model

Although this offers no guarantee of success, among the advantages are that it

- saves time, costs and sometimes reputations
- identifies weaknesses
- makes non-explicit values explicit, unstated ideas overt, and assumptions clear

Process of designing the model

The conceptual model here uses the business procedure of soft-systems management.

Stage 1

Deciding what the system is going to achieve, i.e. what is the purpose of ELT aid? This was done by

- gathering statements on the purpose of ELT Aid from ODA/BC etc.

- sending these statements to informants in different aid sectors, asking them to decide which statement conformed most closely to their own view

This resulted in five modified statements defining the purpose of ELT aid.

Stage 2

Setting up a model for each of the five statements and drawing up a list of activities associated with each one. Of the forty activities listed, only four were common to each of the five models. These were

- design
- implementation
- establishing the effects
- evaluating

Stage 3

Introduction of a conceptual model of activities necessary to manage an ELT project (see diagram 1).

Each of the eight main categories can be expanded into a sub-system with a greater level of specificity (see diagram 2).

Advantages of the model

- as a planning aid, it provides a checklist, especially for the neophyte manager
- it helps in the monitoring/evaluation process (internal and external), providing a bank of questions that can be asked
- it can be used for training
- it can provide a framework for discussion

Teaching and learning in context

Terry Miles

Terry Miles, Technical Director at the London School of English, made a short presentation focusing on progress made to date with the teaching and learning in context project, and on the different means which are becoming available for contact between ELTOs working in different parts of the world.

ELD has commissioned a training package on video teacher training materials production. The package will be usable in a variety of ways. The presentation concentrated on how it might be possible to update the package continuously, thereby promoting the creation and development of a kind of global workshop on video teacher training materials production and related areas, and the problems and advantages of different approaches.

There was a brief demonstration and discussion of how an 'on-line' facility might work and also of the different levels of technical sophistication which are relevant to the project; in terms of materials production this can cover the full range from slide-plus-audio-tape to a video produced in a studio and professionally edited. In terms of the workshop idea, the fact that there will be scope for E-mail and on-line communication in no way precludes communication by more conventional means, such as paper sent by regular mail.

Much interest was expressed in the project; some of the institutions represented at Dunford wished to be kept in touch with its progress, and there was a lot of interest in the techniques for producing materials from audio-plus-slide and in the idea of the global workshop. Some participants seemed to believe that possession of a computer is essential if one is to participate in the global workshop; this is definitely not the case.

Conceptual model of management of ELT project

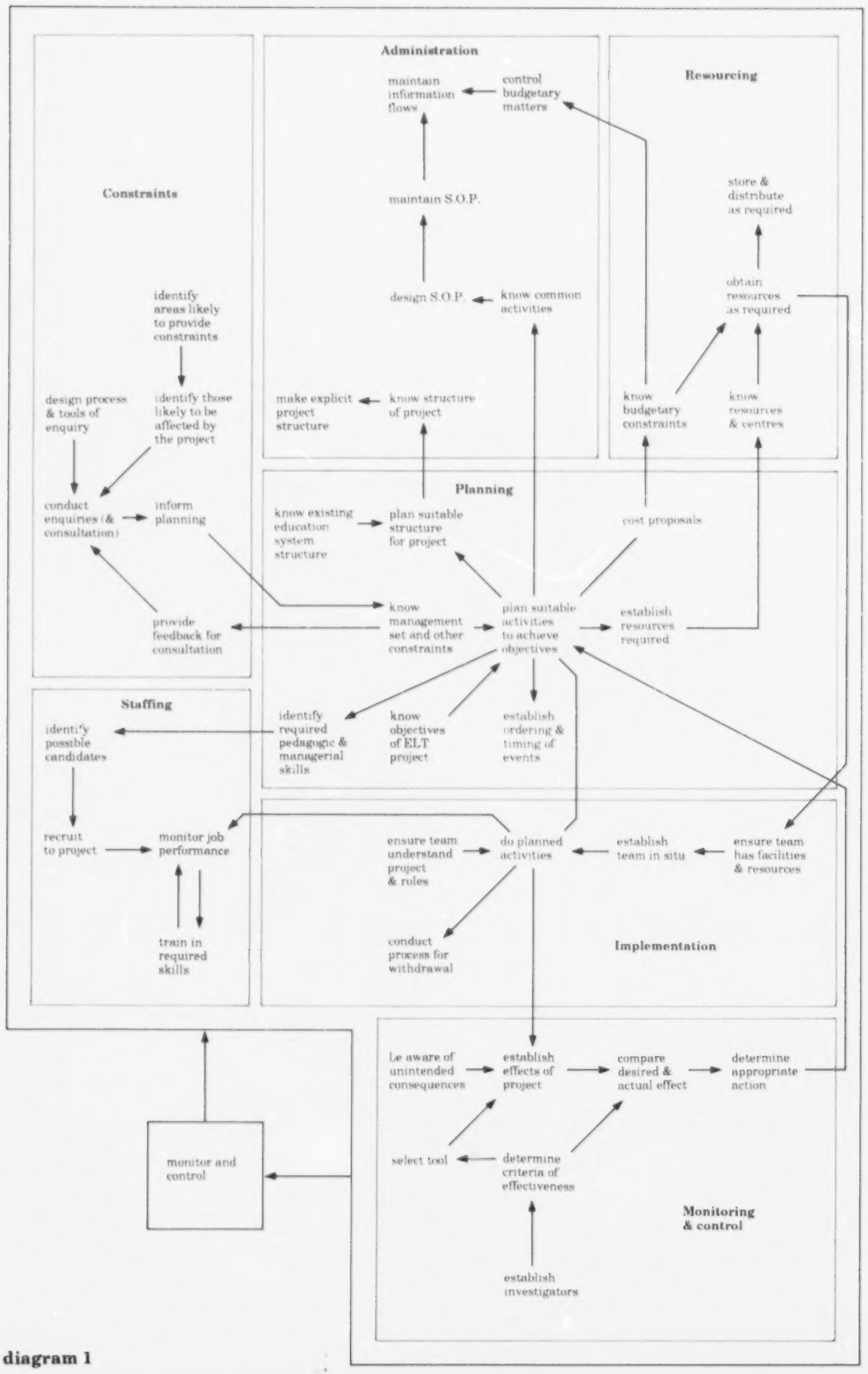


diagram 1

Conceptual model of activities necessary to manage an ELT project (low resolution)

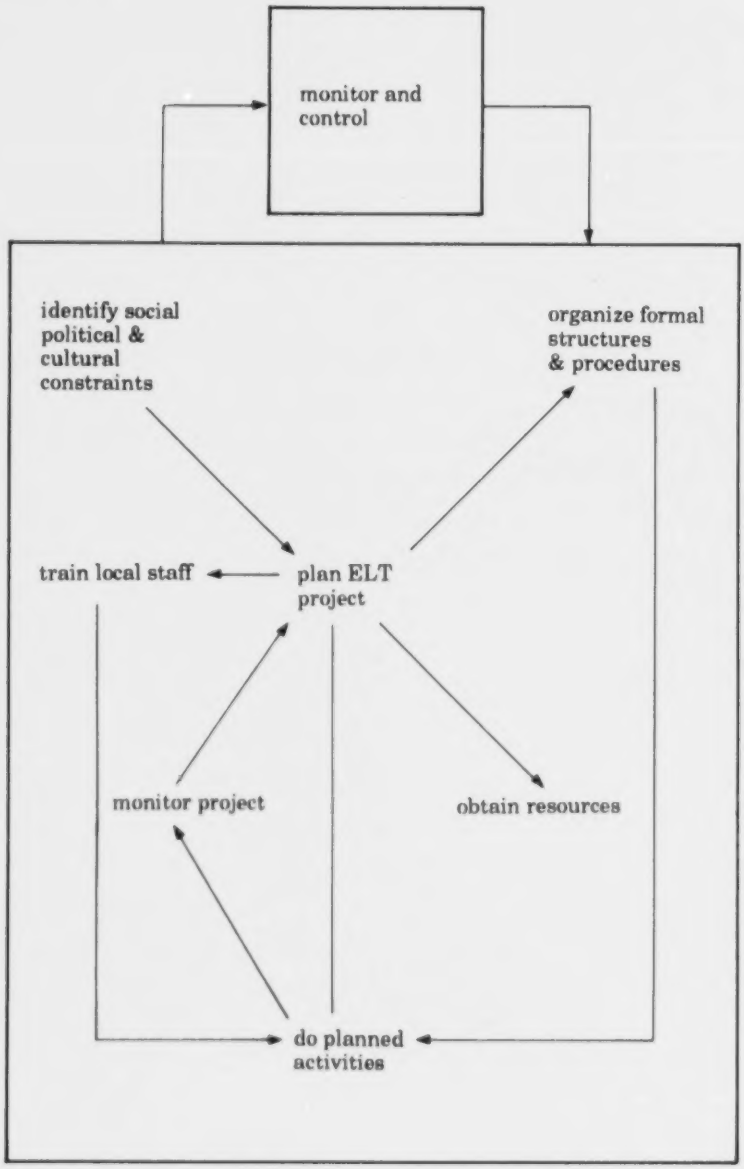


diagram 2

Case study - Togo ELT project in teacher education and training

Case study leader: Eddie Uprichard

The project

The Togo ELT project consists of two sub-projects

1 Sub-project A, based at DIFOP (see Annex 6 for glossary of acronyms) and dealing mainly with the development of training programmes and the infrastructure for general English within the secondary sector

2 Sub-project B, based at the University of Benin and focusing on the development of ESP/EAP, mainly at tertiary level

The case study

Partly because of the limited time available and also partly because sub-project B is still at discussion stage and has not yet been initiated, it was decided to focus the case study on sub-project A, which is entering a phase of consolidation and development.

The task

To suggest how training might be used to strengthen the infrastructure of inspectors, advisers and resource centres within the regions with a view to long-term project sustainability.

Procedure

Description and contextualization of sub-project A and definition of task	E Uprichard	45 mins
Discussion in sub-groups	a in-service training b resource centres	30 mins
Synthesizing of sub-group recommendations	whole group	45 mins
Preparation of presentation	whole group	30 mins
Presentation of report to plenary	Ros Hurst & Tony Wright	20 mins

Report

The Togo resource infrastructure was perceived as consisting of three categories

1 human resources: inspectors, advisers, teachers

2 institutional resources: the institutions concerned (DIFOP, DEDD, DETD)

3 physical resources: books, materials, buildings

It was agreed that under-utilization of any of these resources or lack of co-ordination between them would result in a weakening of the whole. Training programmes, whether based in-country, in the UK or a third country should, in order to be valid, take these factors into account. As Togo has a reasonably well-trained body of inspectors and advisers, it was decided to examine two aspects of the project, the resource centres and the DIFOP-based INSET programme, in order to see what inferences could be drawn about improving utilization of the existing infrastructure and planning for future developments.

Conclusions

While it is obvious that recommendations based on the Togo study are case-specific, it was felt that they had general implications for other projects, especially those within the francophone zone but also other areas as well.

The local advisers are perceived as key personnel with important catalytic roles to play in the development of physical (resource centres) and human (teachers) resources.

Training programmes for personnel should include such components as interpersonal management and 'book' management, as well as more standard ELT elements.

Local advisers (and ELTOs) should be aware of local sensitivities and take care to cater for these in such a way that more traditionally-minded and long-serving personnel (inspectors, for example, tend to be in this category) should not feel threatened by innovations introduced by ELT projects. New roles need to be developed for these cadres.

Awareness, roles and investment were thought to be of special importance and it was felt that these would need due consideration when planning and implementing any programme of innovations. It was felt that if these were ignored, there would be serious doubts about sustainability.

Annex 1

Summary of sub-group A recommendations: resource centres

- to improve accessibility to resource centres for teachers
- to situate advisers within resource centres
- to make advisers responsible for routine management of resource centres
- advisers to catalogue and classify current materials with a view to their becoming familiar with same
- inspectors, advisers and teachers to make recommendations for supplementing current materials
- inspectors and advisers to conduct an awareness campaign amongst teachers to familiarize them with what is available at resource centres
- to train teachers in using resources
- to develop resource centres as meeting places for INSET
- supplementary materials for teachers to be produced by teachers and advisers, inspectors to be involved where possible
- teachers in training (PRESET) to be familiarized with resource centres
- DIFOP to play centralizing and co-ordinating roles in above

Annex 2

Summary of sub-group B recommendations: in-service training

- advisers to act as catalysts for future developments in conjunction with school-based teacher groups leading to networking and the creation of a group of mentor teachers.
- a consistent programme for the development of mentor teachers to be developed
- to develop mutual trust among teachers for self-help/ observation groups
- to develop teachers' observation skills
- to include practical teaching within the INSET programme
- resource centre materials to be exploited during seminars
- to involve teachers in the development of resource materials
- inspectors to chair regional INSET steering groups and to be responsible for communications regarding INSET
- inspectors to be responsible for promotion and publicity of INSET
- District/Regional Teacher Associations to be encouraged
- DIFOP to play centralizing and co-ordinating roles in above

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Annex 3

Key personnel

Institution	Officer	Training profile
DIFOP	Adviser 1	MA USA
	Adviser 2	MA USA
	Adviser 3	MA Christchurch (in training)
	Adviser 4	MA ULIE (recently appointed)
DEDD (Junior Sec)	Advisers 1-5	Adv Dip WSIHE (appointed Sept 1989)
	Advisers 6-10	Adv Dip WSIHE (as from Sept 1990)
	Inspector 1	CAIEN France
	Inspector 2	CAIEN France, Diploma/WSIHE
	Inspectors 3-5	CAIEN Togo, three months ULIE
	Resource person 1	MA Lancaster
	Resource person 2	CAP CEG Togo
DETD (Upper Sec)	Inspector 1	CAIEN France, MA USA
	Inspector 2	CAIEN France, MSc Edinburgh
	Resource person 1	MA Southampton

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Background notes

Sandwiched between Ghana on the west and Benin (ex-Dahomey) on the east the ex-German colony of Togoland was jointly administered by France and Britain until the British area became part of Ghana in 1957. The French zone - modern Togo - became independent in 1960. The loss of the British zone is still a sore point with many Togolese. There is a rapidly increasing population of about 3.5 million. There are numerous vernacular languages (how many depends on who is counting but numbers range from eight to twenty-two), two of which (Ewe and Kabiye) have been adopted as national languages and are taught in school. The official national language is French but most Togolese speak at least some English and a significant number speak German.

Despite suffering like many African countries from economic recession, Togo fares more favourably than many. Utilities such as water, electricity and the telephone system work well and the road network although small is generally good. The economic situation has prevented any increase in the number of teachers and, as pupil numbers are steadily rising, class sizes are often very large.

The educational system was inherited from the French but has been greatly expanded and in theory reformed, although little real change is obvious. Although technical and vocational education is now considered important, and a separate Ministry created to be in charge of it, most pupils at secondary and tertiary level study the traditional academic subjects, including English which is taught from lower secondary level upwards.

British support to ELT has been for twenty years or more in the form of a new post in the English Department of the University. In 1987, a new post was created at DIFOP to provide support for ELT at secondary level, primarily in the form of in-service training for CEG teachers.

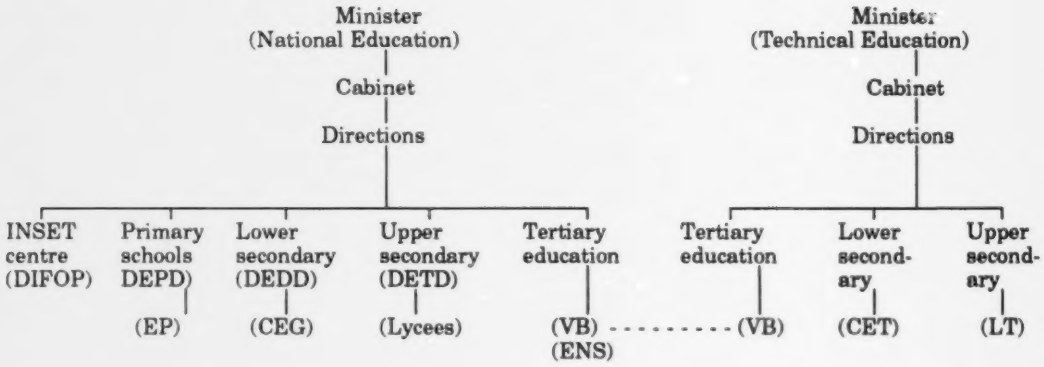
Although there are nominally about 630 English teachers at this level, only about 550 are actually teaching English, the others teaching either French or Ewe instead. About two-thirds of those teaching have been educated in Ghana and so speak fluent (Ghanaian) English. Although many are trained teachers, most have had no training in ELT. The remaining one-third are products of the local ecole normale superieure and have received at least some ELT training. Their level of English varies greatly.

Most lycee teachers are products of the University and have received nominal training. Their general level of English is reasonably good.

The recent decision (August 1989) to create in Lome a free trade import-export zone in which English is expected to be the main working language, has given a great impetus to ELT. This has encouraged the development of sub-project B which is intended to improve the teaching of ESP and EAP at mainly University level. Most teachers of English at this level have had no training in ESP/EAP. The majority are lycee teachers on part-time contracts.

Annex 5

Togo education organization



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Annex 6

DIFOP	Direction de la Formation Permanante, de l'Action et de la Recherche Pédagogiques: institution responsible for in-service training, materials and syllabus development - base for sub-project A
DEPD	Direction de l'Enseignement du Premier Degré - responsible for primary education
DEDD	Direction de l'Enseignement du Deuxieme Degré - responsible for lower secondary education
DETD	Direction de l'Enseignement du Troisieme Degré - responsible for upper secondary education
EP	Ecoles primaires - primary schools
CEG	Colleges d'enseignement general: lower secondary schools - first four years
Lycees	Upper secondary schools - final three years
UB	Universite du Benin - the University of Togo
ENS	Ecole normale superieure - lower secondary teacher training college
CET	Colleges d'enseignement technique - lower level technical and commercial schools
LT	Lycees techniques - upper level technical and commercial schools

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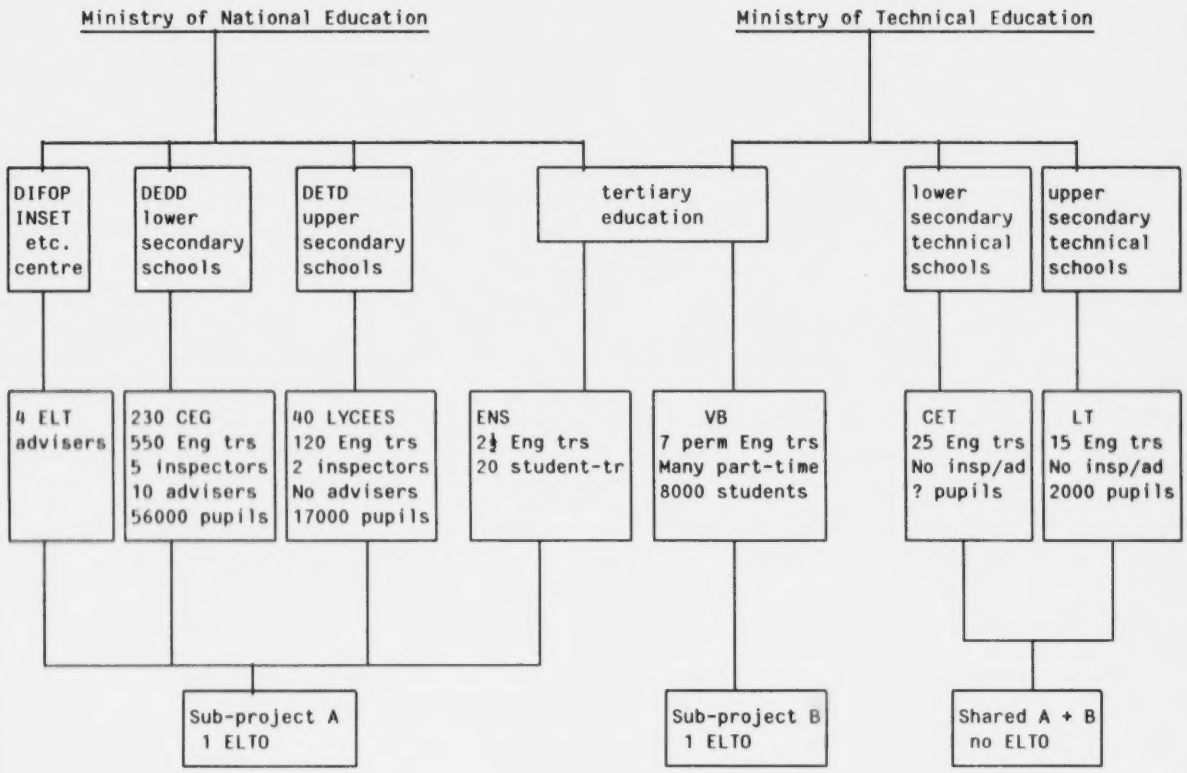
Annexe 7

Project related institutions



Sub-project A: 1 ELTO based in DIFOP: in-service training and support for upper and lower secondary English teachers. Started in March 1987 linked to pre-service training at UB (now suspended in favour of sub-project B). Annual budget of £5,000 as contribution to local seminar funding.

Sub-project B: One ELTO (post under recruitment) based in university; development of ESP mainly at tertiary level with incidental support for English teachers in CET and LT. Effective from September 1990. Annual budget of £5,000 for seminar funding.

Significant sub-project A activities/achievements to date

1 **In-service training (secondary)**

CEG teachers	1989-90: 6 x 5-day seminars: 180 participants in all 1990-91: 8 x 5-day seminars: 250 participants in all (projected)
Lycee teachers	1989-90: 5 x 3-day seminars: all teachers x 2 1990-91: 4 x 3-day seminars: 120 teachers

2 **Pre-service training (university)**

- education component of degree course now an option
- improvements in organization of methodology course and related TP
- improvements in English language courses within English department
- lycee syllabus revision: initiated in 1988 and ongoing
- introduction of English Africa (Cripwell, MacMillan) at lycee level
- introduction of new style exam for baccalaureat

4 **Significant project related TCT**

- 1988-89: 5 ELT advisers trained for lower secondary schools
- 1989-90: 5 ELT advisers trained for lower secondary schools
- 1990-91: 1 lycee inspector to receive training in UK: first of a projected group of ten inspectors/advisers

Case study - Tanzania ELTSP

Case study leader: Paul Simmonds

Background

The English language teaching support project aims to improve English in secondary schools through the provision of books and INSET. Language skills are developed through reading, and to this end the project has adopted the Edinburgh project on extensive reading (EPER). Teacher training involves in-country workshops and sending forty teachers to the UK each year for short methodology courses. Allowing for wastage and a further year of training, there should be 120 UK-trained teachers available by 1991.

The problem

How can the trained teachers be best utilized on their return to Tanzania?

Solutions

The team identified two possible solutions and recommended adoption of the second.

Solution 1 School-based

Trainees with teacher-training potential are identified during their UK training. They are designated 'Advisory Teachers' with a salary and status midway between Head of Department and Deputy Head. This enhanced status is required to allow them to exercise their training responsibilities. Approximately thirty key schools are selected and at least one Advisory Teacher posted to each, spending two-fifths time teaching within the school and three-fifths running short INSET courses for the area. Other locally based trainees, VSO and the inspectorate will assist.

Advantages

1 trainees would not be lost to the school system

2 local INSET would be cheap

3 piloting would be easy

Disadvantages

1 creation of 'Advisory Teacher' status would be difficult

2 once project-funding ended, the Advisory Teacher role could not be sustained

Solution 2 Teacher training college (TTC) based

TTCs provide pre-service training, five offer diploma courses in English. Trainees with the best trainer potential are appointed to these TTCs with no fewer than two in any one college. Their responsibilities are two-thirds outreach INSET and one-third contribution to pre-service courses in the TTC. Outreach courses are largely held in schools in the area. Other trainees based locally assist. This latter group also serve as agents of change in their own schools. TTC-based trainees are supported by ELTOs with further training in Tanzania and UK.

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A necessary condition for solution 2 is that the best trainees are appointed to the TTC posts. This may be negotiated at the time the project extension is discussed with the government of Tanzania.

Concerning materials

UK readers are supplemented by Tanzania-authored books. Authors are trained in the UK and their texts made ready for publication. Printing is done in Tanzania.

Timing

Year	1	2	3	4	5
Training	Train TTs	Install TTs	Run INSET →		
				Run Pre-service →	
Books	Write readers →				
		Publish readers →			

Advantages

- trainees are based in an appropriate environment for teacher-training
- trainees are well-placed to respond to a shift of emphasis from INSET to pre-service training so that the need for INSET is reduced
- TTC status will provide sufficient authority

Disadvantages

- trainees may evolve into academics
- TTCs are not well-distributed

General issues

- solutions should involve planning for the long-term to allow flexibility to changing circumstances as the project evolves and funding is withdrawn
- it is crucial to define the roles of participants. Sufficient authority must be provided
- existing structures (the TTCs) should be used where possible
- the question of how the candidates best qualified to serve the project are appointed must be tackled
- professional links must be provided
- a sustainable supply of materials must be established
- projects should be evaluated quickly so that staff continuity can be maintained

Case study - Sierra Leone

Case study leader: Jane Carey

Preamble

This case study has as its subject the sustainability of a curriculum implementation project in Sierra Leone. The stated wider objectives of the project are to support the strengthening of English as a first language, to support the use of a harmonized syllabus and recommended textbooks, and to upgrade the standard of teaching throughout the country. The case study began by considering the salient features of English language teaching in the Sierra Leone state system. In the interests of brevity, this report will focus on the primary sector, which emerged as the focus of this study.

Background

Schools

English is the official medium of instruction in all educational institutions in Sierra Leone, though Krio, the lingua franca, is also commonly used in the classroom. There are approximately 25,000 primary class teachers working in 2,500 primary schools. A much smaller number teach English in one of the 240 secondary schools. New syllabuses for English have recently been introduced at both primary and secondary level, and the primary teacher training colleges are also using a new syllabus, drawn up to reflect the changes made to the primary syllabus.

Teachers

In primary schools, some teachers are secondary school graduates with no pre-service training, whilst others have been trained at one of the primary teacher training colleges. At these colleges, the failure rate is high, but many failed trainees do find jobs in the primary sector.

Increasingly, graduates of the primary teacher training colleges work in the secondary sector, although the training route for such teachers is designed to be a university degree or a course at the secondary college.

Primary teacher training

Staff at the five primary teacher training colleges rarely have any experience of teaching in primary schools. They are recruited directly on graduation from university, where staff do not like to teach methodology themselves. At primary level, INSET is the responsibility of a group of teacher supervisors, all of whom have previously held senior posts in primary schools. The teacher supervisors have all attended a three-month course in the UK. Their numbers have diminished from the original eighteen in 1982 to about six. Another eighteen, who are inspectors, are also supposed to carry out INSET.

National curriculum development centre

The English Department here has two highly qualified and hard-working local staff.

Organizational structure

The primary teacher training colleges are overseen by the Institute of Education, itself part of the University. The teacher-inspectors, however, work for the Ministry of Education.

The effectiveness of previous ELT aid

The approach has been to provide training in the UK at MA or Diploma level for key personnel involved in pre-service teacher training, and for staff in curriculum development. ELTOs were also placed in four teacher training colleges from 1982 to 1987. Although the curriculum development staff have succeeded in producing new syllabuses, college teacher trainers receiving UK training have tended to move up the system, away from primary teacher training. The UK training of a selected group of teachers to form the teacher-inspector group has not been altogether successful, since there are few of this group still in active employment. Those that are can no longer reach the schools they should be visiting, since no one can afford the transport costs.

An analysis of key problems

- the economic situation in Sierra Leone is causing concern. Inflation is high, and funding for education is scarce. Effects of this include a drift away from schools by teachers in search of a more adequate salary which is paid more regularly. Transport costs to attend workshops can no longer be paid by the authorities or by individuals
- education is no longer viewed as a valuable commodity, since it does not impove employment prospects
- previous ELT aid has been largely top-down. This has failed to trickle down to primary level and can be said to have moved up the system instead
- training has not taken place in, nor established, a coherent structure for curriculum development across the school system

Reasons for focusing on the primary sector

- despite all the current difficulties, enthusiastic teachers can still be found in primary classrooms. A considerable proportion of these are women who are not the main bread-winner of the family and can afford to stay in education. These two factors suggest training might be more effective here than in other sectors
- there is already a system of teacher-supervisors in place, though this would need strengthening
- given the results of a top-down approach to aid, there is a case for attempting a bottom-up strategy
- strengthening English for use across the curriculum at primary level rather than secondary may improve the success rate at the lower levels of school

- all the pre-service training, and the in-service training for secondary schools, is reasonably effective so could continue without extra support for the time being

Strategies for supporting primary INSET

- rather than planning primary INSET around the needs identified by those unfamiliar with the classrooms, the suggested strategy is to find out what the primary sector itself perceives its needs to be

- the vehicle for ascertaining these needs will be a meeting of a consultative forum, a specially invited group consisting of teacher-supervisors and representatives of head teachers and other key teachers from all of the districts, and the ELTO and her colleagues. Needs will be the main topic of workshops and discussion groups at this forum

- a small steering team will plan the consultative forum carefully beforehand. This team will devise a programme and select suitable consultative activities designed to establish such outcomes as

  - how and whether the training packages, prepared some years ago by previous ELTOs, can be made more usable

  - a catalogue of existing resources for INSET

  - an inventory of classroom teaching difficulties which might be reduced through INSET activities requiring minimal resourcing

  - an organizational framework for providing INSET at the local primary level

  - a list of prioritized training needs

Comment

The suggested strategy is not without risk, and the preparatory work of the steering team is absolutely vital so that the forum will produce the necessary commitment, despite the lack of resources.

Evaluation of Technical Co-operation Training

Norman Leigh, Head Quality Control Section, Technical Co-operation Training Department, The British Council

The British Council arranges training on behalf of the ODA for some 13,000 study fellows a year. Half of these are new placements, the remainder being continuers from the previous financial year. In round figures, the programme costs £84 million a year. Administrative costs world wide add another 15%. How do we know that we are getting good, or indeed any, value from this input of money and effort? And are we achieving good standards of administration and support?

Evaluation Unit of TCTD was set up in 1978 at the request of the ODA to carry out research which might inform future policy and enable corrective action to be taken when things appear to be going wrong. They have developed three ways of doing this

1 **Overseas interview exercises.** We aim to carry out six or eight of these each year. A sample of forty-five returned study fellows is chosen from those who have been back from training for about eighteen months - this is a compromise between having sufficient post-training experience to assess the value of the skills obtained and still having a reasonably fresh memory of experiences in Britain. Historically, we have picked a sample from an entire country programme, but increasingly we now choose a subject sector or project (or a group of either of these) as this makes an effective assessment of impact more likely. Each study fellow is interviewed for about ninety minutes, covering every aspect of the award from initial selection and choice of course, through academic linguistic and personal experinces in Britain, to work experience and use of training since return. Line managers are also interviewed where available and a supplementary questionnaire is used to assess the special needs of women study fellows. An award rating is given in each case, and conclusions drawn as to causes of and lessons derived from high and low ratings.

2 **Headquarters desk reviews.** We carry out two or three of these each year. A sample of several hundred files is selected at Headquarters and studied to establish the incidence, causes and possible remedies of a perceived problem. Recent examples include fee escalation, medical problems, speed-of-placing and training failures.

3 **End-of-training questionnaires.** These are distributed to 50% of all study fellows departing at the end of their training, using a random sampling technique. About 70% of these forms are returned, giving a 35% overall sample of the around 6,000 study fellows who complete their awards each year. The questionnaire covers all aspects of time spent in Britain and whether the study fellow considered the training relevant to development needs and likely to be of value on return.

The returns are analysed using the user-friendly survey package (USP) devised at the University of Kent. Tables are produced relating replies to each other, e.g. difficulties with the course can be related

to the amount of ELT received and a self-assessment of linguistic ability. Satisfaction with training can be related to country of origin, subject studied, institution attended, British Council region, age, length of notice received, or adequacy of briefing.

Incoming questionnaires are also scanned immediately on arrival to pick up serious disquiet and where possible to arrange for an adviser to interview the study fellow before departure from Britain. A report is derived from the tables and bench-mark figures compared year to year. Ad hoc data can be drawn off at any time to answer particular enquiries.

From 1991/92 onwards, our partnership with ODA for the running of the programme will move to a more formal contractual basis. The administrative work of running the programme will be negotiated country by country by the geographical desks; some country programmes will be tendered out on a competitive basis. Formal agreements will be established on costs per head for running the programme, and on performance measure and standards for the delivery and outcome of training and administrative services.

To prepare for this, TCTD has merged its Administration, Evaluation and Finance Units into a Quality Control Section which will have the task of ensuring the maintenance of standards across the scheme; this will be of greater importance when the former TCT Programme is broken up into its 109 component country programmes. The opportunity will be taken to set measures and targets and new systems for gathering the data required to judge whether standards are being met.

The merger of finance with quality review will enable connections to be made between resources input and value output. 'Evaluation', which has a technical meaning for our clients, the ODA, will be retitled 'Quality Review'; this will emphasize the importance of comparing cost with quality of return to assess the degree of value for money which is being obtained.

It is impossible to decide whether the objectives of training have been met unless these objectives have been set down clearly from the outset. It is not even possible to make accurate placing recommendations unless this is done. Redesign of the A2 application form and A2a covering comment form will be a priority: this will guide nominating departments overseas into stating precisely what the trainee needs to be equipped to do on return from training: the Council or diplomatic post overseas will have the framework for checking that objectives have been clearly identified, and for stating them where this has not been done. TCOs and ELTOs can help, when they are initiating nominations from their projects, by promoting discussion and formulation of clear objectives.

We also intend to make it possible to pick up potential problems at an early stage when corrective action can be taken for the immediate benefit of current study fellows as well as for their successors. This will be done by means of a start-of-training questionnaire to be issued within a few weeks of arrival. This will pick up early comments on arrival arrangements, but more importantly it will enable actual or perceived misplacings to be resolved at a point where course change or modification is still possible.

The principles underlying the evaluation of training

Pauline Rea Dickins, Department of English Language Teaching, Ealing College

Introduction

This paper has four main aims:

- to examine the **purposes** of evaluation
- to examine the **nature** of evaluation associated with the different purposes identified
- to present a **framework** for the implementation of evaluations
- to suggest ways in which aspects of the framework may be **applied** to the evaluation of training

By way of introduction, training may be identified in several different ways, to include the following.

A	**Overseas**	
	(a)	One year/9 month MA/Diploma (qualificatory)
	(b)	short specialist course
		- one-off
		- continuing
	(c)	PhD (split, with data collection in students' own context)
	(d)	individual attachment
B	**In-country**	
	(a)	integrating trainee within the project
	(b)	preparatory to overseas training
	(c)	short courses (one-off/continuing)
	(d)	regular in-service

Figure 1: Sample types of training

1 Purposes of evaluation

Within the context of training, three main purposes for evaluation are identified: (1) accountability, (2) curriculum and training development and (3) awareness raising. These are summarized in Figure 2 below.

1	**Evaluation for purposes of accountability:** - to examine whether the training has been effective - to determine whether the indicators of success of the training/ project have been achieved - to determine the value for money invested in the training
2	**Evaluation for purposes of development (curriculum and training): monitoring with a view to improving the functioning of the project** (a) to confirm existing practice (b) to gather information for innovation (curriculum development which includes staff training)
3	**Evaluation for awareness-raising purposes** - evaluation as an awareness-raising activity

Figure 2: Purposes of evaluation

The first purpose relates to evaluative judgements made for purposes of decision making. Here the aim is to pronounce a judgement about the training itself, the information from which may not be used in any major way to improve the functioning of the training. It may however be used to curtail a sponsor's financial involvement in a project.

Evaluation for purposes of development of the training curriculum, on the other hand, is concerned with description and explanation. It may be used to gather evidence to confirm the quality of aspects of the existing training provision. Alternatively, it will gather information to be used as the basis for future action leading to improved training. It is more likely to have a selective, rather than a global, focus and its primary motivation is to seek feedback that can be used to enhance the quality of the training.

Evaluation as an awareness raising activity links closely with the development of training. It is intended that the enhanced awareness of the trainees or trainers will feed into the curriculum (i.e. training curriculum) renewal process. The aim of this evaluation is solely formative and it responds to particular issues and/or problems. It is thus very selective in its focus.

The evaluation purposes identified above are not necessarily mutually exclusive. However, the main motivations for the three different evaluation purposes have been outlined. The practice of evaluation may be summarized in the following way.

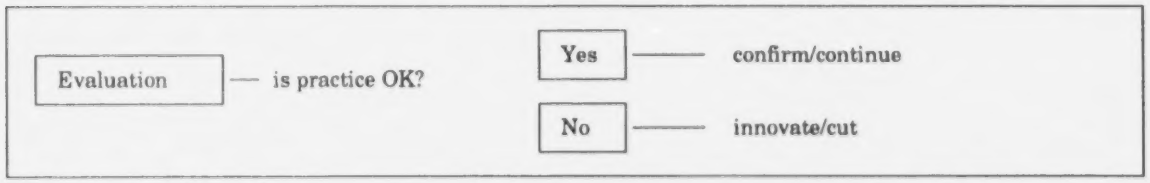


Figure 3: Evaluation - summary

2 Characteristics of evaluation for specific purposes

The nature of evaluation may change according to the purpose(s) for which it is undertaken. The characteristics associated with the three main purposes of evaluation are summarized in Figure 4.

Accountability
grade: explicit or implied information used for major training decisions, e.g. terminate training/ project prematurely - imposed externally - undertaken by agent external to the training/project - quantitative - formal - weighted, influential in decision making process - limited participation by those involved in the training/project - little feedback from the evaluation into the training/project - information largely used exclusively by those external to the project - summative - product/ends focused
Development
- information used internally for purposes of improving the training/ functioning of the project - nature of and approach to the evaluation agreed within the project, (external advice not precluded) - undertaken by the trainers and trainees, i.e. the project participants - qualitative, descriptive, some quantitative data - undervalued by external agents - maximum participation by user groups - feedback both into the project and into the external (accountability) evaluation - information used largely by the project but should also be taken into account in any external evaluation - formative - primarily process and means-focused (versus product-focused)

Awareness-raising
- no grade - qualitative, descriptive - initially guided by participants internal to the training - of foremost relevance to the trainees, but also provides information for project monitoring - undervalued as part of formative (internal) and summative (external) evaluations - feeds back into the training programme and project directly. Is indirectly related to external evaluation - formative - process and means oriented

Figure 4: Characteristics of evaluation

In terms of the development of the training itself and the personnel involved in the training project, evaluation for purposes of development and consciousness raising are of most relevance. Evaluation for purposes of accountability will be relevant to sponsors, however the information provided from this type of evaluation will contribute little to overall development and sustainability, i.e. the quality of the training. The relationship between these three evaluation purposes may be summarized thus.

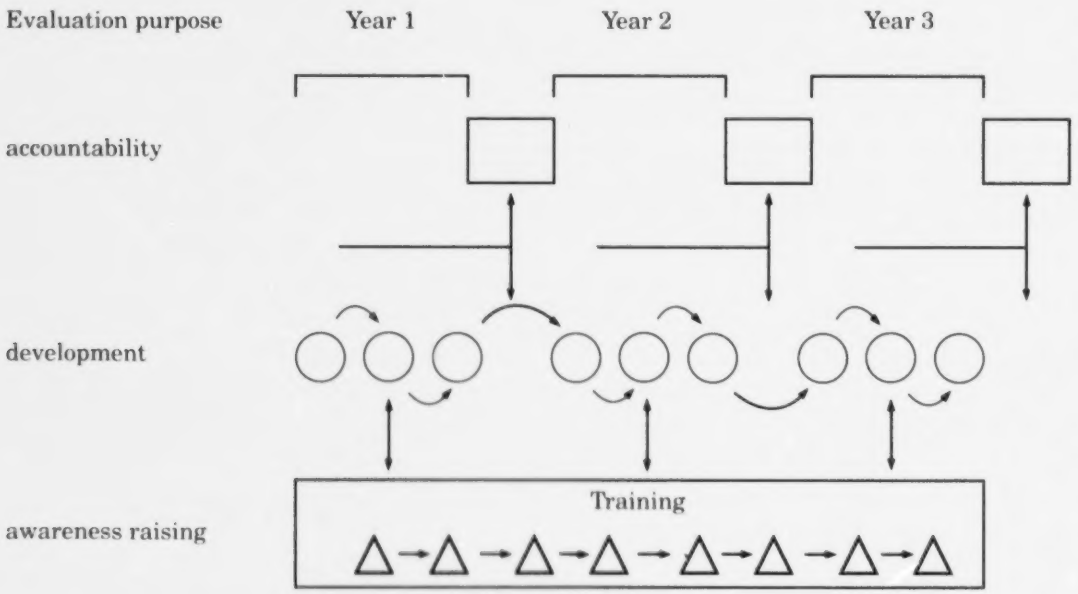


Figure 5: Relationship between levels of evaluation in training projects

A comprehensive evaluation should take into account the information provided at each of the three levels identified above. However, accountability evaluations have invariably assumed greater significance than more informal developmental and awareness raising evaluation activities. There are no grounds whatsoever for this to be the case. In essence, '... different areas of evaluation are important to different people, at different times, and for different reasons' (Rea 1983). The relationship between the evaluation levels is that awareness raising data will feed into the development process which in turn will feed into overall accountability evaluations.

3 Framework for evaluation

A framework for evaluation activities is presented in the form of eleven questions (Rea Dickins and Germaine, forthcoming 1991). These are intended to be used as a checklist when preparing for evaluations. Each question raises key principles underlying the evaluation process.

Framework for evaluation

1 **Who is the information for?**
Why do they want to evaluate the training?

2 **What are the criteria** to be used in the evaluation?
Who establishes these criteria?

3 **What** will be evaluated? What aspect of the training will be evaluated?

4 **When** shall the evaluation take place? What are the timescales for the evaluation?

5 What **procedures** will be used to obtain the data?

6 **Where** and from **whom** are we going to get the information?

7 **Who** are we going to **involve** in the evaluation?

8 How are we going to **manage** the evaluation?

9 What are we going **to do** with the information we get?
This depends on

(a) the purpose of the evaluation
(b) the nature of the evaluation
(c) the audience to whom the information will be available?
(d) the nature of the feedback from the evaluation
(e) the way in which the evaluation data is reported

10 What are the **constraints** and/or problems that need to be taken into account when planning for/implementing the evaluation?

11 **Evaluating** the evaluation process; are the evaluations effective?

Figure 6: Framework for Evaluation

It is important to recognize the interdependence between these questions. The information elicited by the framework is not to be seen in isolation. For example, if you identify a need for evaluation for purposes of teacher development (question 1) then this determines a range of other considerations: what will be evaluated (question 2), the criteria to be used (question 3), who will be involved (question 7) and how the information will be used (question 9).

Question 10 refers to constraints which need to be taken into account when planning and undertaking an evaluation. Some of these constraints will arise from the context in which the evaluation is taking place (e.g. very large numbers of trainees widely dispersed within a big country). It is crucial to identify constraints at the outset and to be aware of the (potential) effect(s) that these may have for the evaluations.

In question 11, the idea of keeping a track on the evaluations themselves is introduced. In other words, it is considered important to evaluate the usefulness of any evaluations that are carried out. Are they achieving the purposes set? If they are not, then is something being done about it?

4 Case study

A context is provided within which to analyse some of the ways in which training may be evaluated. This context is summarized in Figure 7 below.

Case study: Teacher training project for primary/secondary school teachers in an EFL context. Based in regional TTCs and primarily related to INSET.

Aims

- to improve ELT in the school sector
- to provide training and materials for some teachers and teacher trainers and inspectors

The project

This involves:
- support to the TTCs and ELTOs
- in-country seminars
- overseas short courses (10 weeks) training for the target teachers, inspectors

Details of Context

- level of ELT is low
- teaching is low status profession
- inadequately trained teachers
- little/no in-service training
- inadequate pre-service
- teachers' lack of confidence in using English
- unresponsive to potential for classroom innovation
- inflexible to change

The training

a in-country seminars
b overseas short course of study

The aim of this training is to introduce innovation in classrooms

Evaluation of training

There are a number of questions to ask which include the following (NB this is not an exhaustive list)

how can the trainees be assisted in the process of implementing change?

what constraints inhibit change?

do trainees transfer their skills from the course of training into the target work (teaching) situation?

what changes are there in classroom practice?

what can students do after the training that they cannot do before training?

Figure 7: Outline case study

The five evaluation questions given above are indicative of the type of questions that may be asked regarding the effectiveness of training.

Three stages are identified at which evaluation activities are important.

Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
pre-training	the training	post-training
What is the baseline?	How effective/ efficient is it?	What evidence is there for the transfer of skills?

Figure 8: Stages in the evaluation of training process

The appropriate time to undertake the first evaluation is prior to the training itself. Issues of interest for evaluations at this stage include the following

Stage 1

1.1 evaluate tenders for the overseas training at level of workplan

1.2 define baseline teacher performance/classroom practice = evaluating current practices

1.3 evaluate/identify the trainees who will be taken onto the project/ sent for overseas training

1.4 sensitize trainees to aims of training

NB: Important to articulate the baseline competencies at the beginning

Figure 9: Evaluation of the pre-training stage

An example of how the issues above could be elaborated is given in Figure 10 below with specific reference to 1.2.

Define baseline teacher performance and classroom practice

- level of teachers' language proficiency: formal abilities, the four skills, summary skills
- nature of classroom management
- social organization of the classroom
- nature of classroom interaction: TT talk, PP talk, question types etc.
- approaches to teaching grammar
- use of visual aids

Figure 10: Evaluating the baseline

An analysis of this kind will provide different types of baseline data to which subsequent training and evaluations may be related.

At Stage 2, the training provided is evaluated in terms of the baseline aims and also in terms of its process of delivery.

Stage 2

Evaluate whether practice reflects the workplan: is the training promised being delivered?

Figure 11: Evaluation of the training

The main issues in the evaluation of training at Stage 3 are summarized below.

Stage 3

- evaluate teachers and teaching: outcomes in terms of process
- evaluate teachers and teaching: outcomes in terms of products

Figure 12: Evaluation of the post-training stage

Evaluation at the post-training phase may focus on process or product outcomes. The following questions relate to changes in classroom testing practices that may have taken place between the pre-training and the post-training stages. They reflect a concern with trainee outcomes in terms of process:

- what changes are there in classroom practice: what is the same, what is different?
- which test types are used: same or different? What are the differences? Why?
- when are tests used? Why?
- how are the tests introduced and administered in class?
- how are the tests marked? What marking schemes are used? Does the teacher do all the marking? To what extent are pupils involved in the marking process?
- what works well? The teacher to identify this
- what does not work well? The teacher to provide this information

- how does the teacher manage the feedback from the tests?

Evaluations concerned with outcomes in terms of end products will be expressed differently. Three examples are given below.

- do the trainees plan/run training sessions for teachers? Do they do this well?
- have the trainees set up their own teacher network/ support systems? How effective and efficient are they?
- can the trainees produce suitable test materials/write appropriate tests/handle feedback sessions well?

Notice how questions that might be asked in an accountability evaluation study are more concerned with making evaluative judgements in terms of good and/or bad practices. By way of contrast, evaluations for purposes of development and awareness raising focus more on the better understanding of training and the application of training skills to the target use context, through description and explanation.

Other considerations

Where evaluations are undertaken by external consultants it is crucial that the evaluation strategies adopted are conceptually appropriate to the training pedagogy of the training project and the country in which the training skills are to be applied.

In terms of the management of evaluations, it is important that contributions are gathered from all the relevant user groups. Hitherto, evaluations have been dominated by external experts who, by the nature of their task, will only have access to product data. It is thus essential that process data collected in the monitoring of training is available to any external evaluator. This can only happen if the training project and the internal evaluation of the different aspects of training is well managed and co-ordinated.

Conclusion

Evaluation is a crucial tool for trainers and trainees. In many contexts it is insufficient, or even irrelevant, to evaluate what trainees 'know'. Rather, it is necessary to understand what trainees actually 'do' in their target work situations. We can find out these details of classroom practice through evaluation activities.

There are several means by which we may evaluate the performance of trainees. These include observation, diary keeping and self assessment. Evaluation provides the means whereby we may determine progress towards the target, that is to determine the extent to which the training has moved the trainees away from the baseline level of performance towards the attainment of the target performance criteria. For evaluations to be successful, however, it is essential for those involved in the evaluation process (e.g. those providing the training, those buying in the training, and other relevant professionals such as inspectors) to have a shared conceptual framework.

Case study - Philippines: ESP project at UP

Case study leader: Mike Smith

Project background

The ESP project at the University of the Philippines (UP) in the Visayas is based in Iloilo City and was set up in November 1987 with a view to producing relevant and suitable materials for students following fisheries courses in the Philippines where the main language of instruction and communication in higher education is English. This particular area was targeted as fisheries-related activities are a vital sector of the Philippine economy. There was also an expressed need by industry for fisheries college graduates with relevant and effective English abilities.

Including UP Visayas there are eight major tertiary colleges of fisheries in the country, six of which have university status. These were the major initial target of the programme. The baseline was effectively zero at commencement. The aim was to produce a textbook with integrated audio and video components and to provide in-service support and training for the ELT staff. The problems of the physical spread of the colleges throughout the Philippine archipelago and the communication problems that this brings were recognized from the outset. At the time of Dunford 1990, the textbook was about to be published, audio materials were complete and the video materials were in final editing stages. Two national seminars had been held and a third was scheduled for October. The materials were all network-created and trialled, based on a very flexible set of free standing modules in order to fit in with college requirements and the needs of the fisheries professionals who have been involved from the beginning of this project.

The task

At the Dunford seminar the group concentrated on the training of ELT staff within the network and the contribution that this would make to the long-term viability of the project as a whole. Those involved in the project wished to consider a method for the evaluation, assessment and continuing active involvement of the ELT teachers in the project. Particular consideration was given to overseas training and how UK institutions could usefully be more actively involved. We found it difficult to separate this from the materials side of the project but recognized the human resource in our context as probably the most significant factor in sustainability.

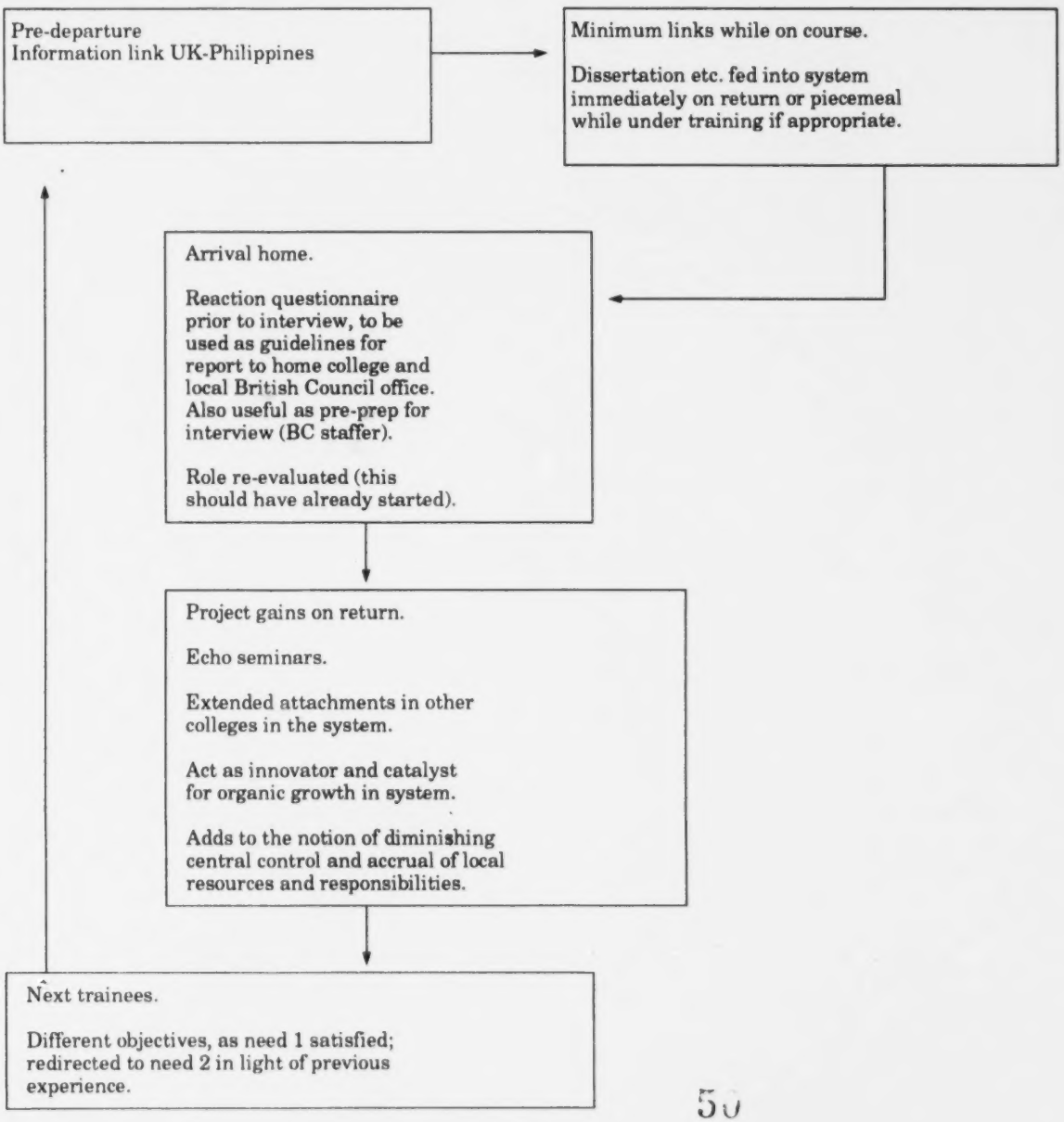
Output report

We considered two factors connected with sustainability. The first was the concept of the 'self-destructing ELTO'; the second, a training strategy for the teaching staff in the colleges beyond the in-country visits, networking and national seminars which we already had in place.

In the case of ELTO involvement we considered how the ELTO function within the project framework shifts emphasis from the training of counterparts to the point

where on withdrawal the counterparts themselves become the trainers. The procedure adopted in our case was to involve all the staff in the colleges in a networking system from the very beginning, thereby giving every teacher the chance to contribute to the shaping not only of the materials but of the network philosophy. The role of the ELTO was to shape the overall role of the staff and to promote interdiscipline co-operation in the colleges by example. The ability of the project organizers to educate, change attitudes and bring about innovation is as much of a key factor in the sustainability as the final product in terms of materials, which in themselves must be seen not to be enshrined.

The effective use of trainees prior to UK training and on their return was examined within this context and the chart below illustrates our thinking in this respect.


Pre-departure
Information link UK-Philippines
Minimum links while on course.
Dissertation etc. fed into system immediately on return or piecemeal while under training if appropriate.
Arrival home.
Reaction questionnaire prior to interview, to be used as guidelines for report to home college and local British Council office. Also useful as pre-prep for interview (BC staffer).
Role re-evaluated (this should have already started).
Project gains on return.
Echo seminars.
Extended attachments in other colleges in the system.
Act as innovator and catalyst for organic growth in system.
Adds to the notion of diminishing central control and accrual of local resources and responsibilities.
Next trainees.
Different objectives, as need 1 satisfied; redirected to need 2 in light of previous experience.

Conclusions and comments

Since the Dunford seminar in August 1990 the ELTO has withdrawn from post leaving a multi-layered network with seven staff either in training or having completed UK courses. Another three will certainly be sent and there are strong indications that a further eight will be sent by the academic year 1992/3. The strategy outlined for staff training and feedback has been started following the annual seminar in early October 1990. Early indications of UK-trained staff being moved around the network to 'guest' at other network colleges, and outreach training by the colleges themselves at fisheries schools at a lower level than undergraduate have been positive and encouraging.

The two key human resource areas of this project, the networking and the staff themselves, seem to be aware of the importance of continued innovation and evaluation in order to keep their system both operational and evolutionary.

Case study - Pakistan: NAHE

Case study leader: Rab Shiel

Background

NAHE, the National Academy of Higher Education, Islamabad, offers a Diploma in Teaching English as an International Language for tertiary level teachers. Since 1983, 160 teachers have been trained. Scholars are nominated from diploma holders for UK masters level training. The preferred candidates, the highest achievers, are not always nominated.

The Director of Studies is an ELTO. His counterpart is undertaking Ph.D. studies in the USA and will not return until September 1991. Her replacement has not been confirmed in her post due to severe administrative problems. Lack of an oficial counterpart theatens the continuity of the project. The ELTO will be withdrawn in September 1990 unless counterparting can be arranged.

The task

Formulate a plan of action for both the 'insider' (the acting counterpart) and the 'outsider' (the ELTO) in the event of both the worst and the best scenario coming to pass.

The worst scenario

The acting counterpart is not confirmed and resigns in protest.

The ELTO is withdrawn in September 1990.

The other counterpart returns from the USA in September 1991 but moves to a university the following year.

Few high achievers are nominated for scholarships.

Action plan. The 'Outsider'

1 brief a NAHE administrative officer to act as a stop-gap Director of Studies until counterpart returns

2 prepare full teaching notes so that the diploma can be run by tutors drawn from the best UK-trained teachers and from members of SPELT, the national ELT teachers association

3 hold a one-week briefing session for this group

The best scenario

ELTO's contract extended by twelve months with the last six months in a consultative role.

Acting counterpart officially appointed course co-ordinator.

Two diploma courses are held in Year 1, the first directed by the ELTO and the second by the counterpart.

The other counterpart returns from the USA and is appointed Project Director (September 1991).

Both counterparts run the diploma.

The course extends to university centres.

More high achievers are nominated for scholarships.

The best help staff the new diploma courses.

Action plan. The 'Outsider'

1 plan a phased withdrawal with a paved handover to the counterpart

2/3 as above

Action plan. The 'Insider'

Year 1 - Baseline study

1 identify potential trainers

2 identify factors contributing to success in previous projects

3 identify new/further training needs

4 consolidate resources

5 carry out follow-up visits to students writing assignments

Year 2

1 with Project Director plan regional centres, university-based, to teach DTEIL and short training course

2 seek UK short courses training for trainers, administrators, resource persons and in research and evaluation

3 seek collaborative consultancies from UK institutions

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Annex 1

Reasons for concern

After more than six months the appointment of a local counterpart to the British Director of Studies is still unresolved. This appointment should be seen as essential to ensure continuity and to sustain and develop what has been achieved so far.

The former counterpart left NAHE almost three years ago for Ph.D. research in the United States. Since then the continuity of the project has been under threat on grounds of the lack of a counterpart. The Director of Studies will be withdrawn in September unless counterparting can be arranged. Effectively this will mean the collapse of the project in its present form.

Extremely slow processing of scholarship candidates nominated for UK training (DTEIL four candidates now being nominated for September 1990, three years after leaving NAHE).

Of particular concern to NAHE for the continuity of the course is the fact that high-achieving candidates have to wait their turn while mediocre and even low achieving candidates are sent for UK training. It is the high achievers who will be the future resource people, and there are not yet enough of them to sustain the course. The processing of 'A grade' candidates needs to take priority: six A graders from DTEIL 5 and six from DTEIL 6 await nomination.

Annex 2

Reasons for optimism

- projected appointment of highest achieving former participants as counterpart to British Director of Studies
- gradual increase of well-qualified resource persons to teach the future courses
- continuing massive demand by teachers of English for the diploma course (approximately six applicants for each place in summer, three for each place in winter)
- impressive standards of participants achievements at upper end of the scale (A grades)
- there is now a great deal of evidence (both documented in participants' assignments and from anecdotal feedback) that methodological innovations are being introduced widely in university and degree college classrooms as a direct result of the diploma course
- some of these innovations, and the approaches of the diploma course in general, will gain a wider audience shortly with the publication this summer by the UGC of half a dozen of the best assignments from the diploma course. This 300-page publication will cover the spectrum of tertiary level ELT in Pakistan and will deal with needs, syllabus, materials, methodology, English for specific purposes and teacher training
- the diploma courses are having a perceptible influence in changing university English departments' under-graduate and postgraduate courses from their former exclusive concern with literature to an increasing interest in TEFL and applied linguistics. Syllabuses have already moved in this direction in the universities of Karachi, Punjab, Multan and AJK, Muzaffarabad

Annex 3

The teaching of English in Pakistan

- English is taught as an academic subject: learners are made to study texts at the linguistic level of the educated native speaker and memorize rules of grammar
- syllabuses for English consist for the most part of passages by half-forgotten British writers of the inter-war period. There is a heavy emphasis on literary texts
- teachers lack TEFL training. They provide students with synopses of texts through lectures. Mostly synopses are given either entirely in L1 or in a mixture of L1 and English. Teachers and students whose proficiency is such that the text can be discussed in English are a small minority
- students, confronted with texts beyond their proficiency level in English, turn to guide-books for summaries which they learn by rote
- classrooms are over-crowded (60 to 250 students)
- teaching aids are virtually non-existent: blackboard and chalk is all that is available
- the examination system tests students' knowledge of the content of prescribed texts and not their proficiency in English

Annex 4

SPELT

SPELT, Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers, was founded in 1987 with the following objectives

- to provide a professional forum for English language teachers in Pakistan
- to serve as the centre for the dissemination of current ideas and developments in ELT
- to provide in-service courses, seminars and workshops in ELT
- to build up a resource centre complete with up-to-date ELT materials

Formal training opportunities

SPELT runs a year long teacher-training course in ELT. Four courses have been successfully completed and the fifth is now in progress.

SPELT has recently been recognized by the RSA and Cambridge University, and participants who successfully complete the course now in progress will be awarded the COTE (Certificate of Teaching English).

Informal training opportunities

SPELT runs a two hour workshop on ELT every month in Karachi. Chapters in Peshawar, Islamabad, Labore, and Multan also run workshops but less frequently.

Every year since its formation SPELT has run a seminar which has been an international affair for the past two years with contributor and participants from Bangladesh, India, the USA and the UK. The 1989 seminar was attended by 450 teachers.

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Annex 5

NAHE: (Brief description)

The National Academy of Higher Education, University Grants Commission was established under a resolution of the government of Pakistan in 1983. It is mandated to undertake academic development of the universities including faculty development.

The affairs of the Academy are vested in a Board of Governors whose chairman is the chairman of the University Grants Commission. The Director General, the Head of the Academy, is one of the Senior Academicians appointed by the UGC. He is responsible for carrying out the objectives of the Academy.

In addition to its own faculty members, NAHE invites resource persons covering a wide range of expertise from universities and other institutions.

The functions of the Academy are

- to organize pre-service/in-service training programmes and diploma courses in the teaching of English for college and university teachers
- to undertake research and development curricula for the subjects taught at college and university level
- to organize conferences, seminars, symposia and workshops, to further improve education and research in colleges and universities
- to serve as a centre for the dissemination of information on curriculum, administration and evaluation of higher education
- to establish centres/institutes/units for research and training
- to seek co-operation and provide professional services and support to educational institutions and other related agencies/institutions
- to appoint study/task groups to identify issues and suggest measures for the improvement of higher education in the country
- to publish monographs, dissertations, research reports, journals and other such materials as may be considered necessary for the promotion of higher education
- to perform such other functions as the University Grants Commission may assign to it

Case study - South Africa: the Molteno project

Case study leader - Charles Nuttall

The Molteno project is a programme of research and development aimed primarily at teaching the basic skills of reading and writing in English in black primary schools in South Africa.

The task set for the participants in the case study was as follows

- identify, analyse and describe the training skills required at the various level of the training network
- suggest strategies and procedures for developing these skills

The various levels referred to were

1 ELTO and Molteno project staff

2 area co-ordinators

3 circuit trainers

4 local school-based trainers (LSBTs)

All of these except (1) are practising teachers who work, in most cases, both part-time and unpaid.

The discussion focused on the LSBTs who, it was recognized, would be in receipt of only ten days training as teacher-trainers in the first year.

The three major tasks of the LSBTs were identified as follows

1 forming local teacher support groups

2 running training seminars for/with group members

3 monitoring group members' performance in the classroom

This last monitoring function led to a great deal of discussion. Monitoring was felt to be an inappropriate word, indicative of assessment and (negative) evaluation. Ten days was felt to be inadequate for the proper training of LSBTs in the constructive use of such a technique.

It was suggested, therefore, that it might be better if - initially at least - no monitoring was done. Instead the training pack could include classroom tasks for each group member to try out and discuss with her colleagues at the next seminar. This, it was felt, would lead, in a natural way to teachers observing each other's lessons, with the lead perhaps being taken by the LSBT.

The skills involved in forming the support group would include

- identifying key support
- organizing publicity
- managing small-scale finances
- keeping records

These skills could be developed through a variety of strategies including discussion, role-playing, games and demonstrations.

The skills involved in running training seminars would include

- knowing the training materials
- leading/chairing meetings
- delegation of responsibilities
- encouraging innovation in colleagues
- selecting and sequencing activities
- choosing and exploiting appropriate workshop strategies
- dealing with questions
- providing appropriate feedback

These skills could be developed in a similar way through a variety of strategies, including brain-storming, peer-teaching, use of classroom data such as teachers' diaries, mini-presentation and reading.

Finally it was recognized both that LSBTs would need a great deal of support during and after their training, and that support groups would function best where the LSBT was perceived as a first among equals rather than as a superior.

Final day: recommendations

The following problems were identified by British training institutions and recommendations were made to overcome them.

1 There was an insufficient flow of information between institutions and projects. It was recommended that

- all ELTOs should receive information about the British institutions attended by the project staff
- all institutions should receive project documents relating to their students' circumstances
- there should be direct communication between the institutions and the ELTOs, particularly concerning the training of staff, e.g. in the matter of choice of options and dissertation topics etc. Copies of such letters should be sent to appropriate personnel in the British Council for information

2 Some information was not used correctly. It was recommended that

- results of evaluations should be fed back to institutions to improve the development of courses
- institutions should take part in the evaluation process

3 Institutional expertise was not used fully. It was recommended that

- institutions should be involved in all stages of projectization, i.e. in planning, implementation and evaluation. This would help to tailor training to the needs of the project

4 The British resource base is insecure. It was recommended that

- there should be long-term planning of the use of training institutions and commitment to support them
- there should be continuity in the placing of students from one year to the next

5 Facilities for development need to be improved. It was recommended that

- a way of publishing information about projects, e.g. a project newsletter, should be explored
- attachments of project staff to institutions and vice versa should be encouraged

6 The process of project bidding is unsatisfactory. It was recommended that

- the process should be clarified and reviewed
- it should be discussed with the institutions

Suggestions for action

from ELTOs

ODA should provide and cost for short courses for ELTOs on

- courses on the language of country
- courses on technical aspects - e.g. computer skills
- places on British Council Specialist Courses
- places on training courses run by other ELTOs

Perhaps ELO training (i.e. BC staff training) could be open to ELTOs.

All necessary training costs and briefings should be built into project costs.

The point was made that ODA will not normally fund ELTO training. However links could incorporate attachments that would assist in training.

from ELTO counterpart

- the ELTO's job may not be the one that the counterpart will take over
- the one-to-one counterpart should fade out to be replaced by one-to-many teams where possible
- abandon the word 'counterpart'
- there is a clear place for broad-based training

Appendix 1
Large Classes and Training for Sustainability

Hywel Coleman
Overseas Education Unit, University of Leeds

1 Phenomena

Two separate but related phenomena require our attention

- distinctive patterns of teacher behaviour and classroom management which, to the observer, often appear cumbersome, exhausting, inappropriate for large classes. These styles differ from one country to another
- teachers' reports of the difficulties which they experience when teaching large classes. These reports tend to fall into a small set of universal categories

Both phenomena reflect fundamental conceptions of the duties or responsibilities of the classroom language teacher - even though the manifestations of these conceptions seem highly impractical.

2 Sources

Where do these conceptions originate? Partly, at least, through training and through the influence of publications:

We would like to be given a chance of teaching small classes to implement our new skills.

A teacher from South Africa, at the end of a UK training programme (Peachey 1989)

3 Proposal

We require more analysis, by teachers, of the following characteristics of their own situations

- causes
- parameters
- constraints
- objectives
- procedures and roles
- materials

Classroom observation

On Monday morning, from 09.00 to 10.00, I visited a girls' secondary school in a suburb in the north of the city. ... I observed a complete lesson taught to Class 9. ... The class consisted of forty girls, sitting in heavy desks in a reasonably spacious though rather full room. There seemed to be one book per desk (i.e. one per pair of pupils). The lesson was based on a passage about the life of the founder of the nation. This is a topic which seems to be used at various levels, in slightly different forms, as one of the lessons observed the previous week was also based on the same biography.

The teacher's standard procedure was as follows

- T reads a sentence
- T occasionally asks pupils to read a sentence from the text
- T asks pupils for an explanation - sometimes in English, sometimes in L1 - of individual words or phrases (an example was 'matriculation exam', but nobody succeeded in providing a suitable explanation)
- T provides the correct answer
- T occasionally asks a question about the content of the sentence
- T occasionally asks pupils to chant sentences
- T provides a single word prompt and asks pupils to produce a new sentence, based on the model of the sentence which has just been chanted but incorporating the new vocabulary item

Students were expected to stand up every time an adult entered the room. Individuals stood up whenever they were addressed or when they were nominated to provide a response. They remained standing, sometimes for agonizingly long periods, even when they had provided the required response, until the teacher told them to sit down again. The convention appeared to be that a correct response allowed one to sit down again immediately, but it frequently happened that the teacher gave no clear indication as to whether their response was correct or not; consequently the pupils remained standing.

Towards the middle of the lesson, the emphasis moved away from English towards politics. After the teacher had worked herself up to a rather emotional pitch she suddenly stopped:

- T Open your copies please now and write your answers

She then copied on to the blackboard two questions which were already in the students' book and which the students could see easily (in exactly the same way as the teacher observed the previous week had done)

1 When was the founder of the nation born?

2 What do you know of his early life?

The pupils had to close their textbooks and write answers to these questions from memory in their exercise books. The teacher patrolled the room while the girls worked. She made frequent 'tsk-tsk-tsk' sounds to stamp out any murmurings. If the pupils finished this exercise before the end of the lesson they had to hand in their books to the teacher for correction later. I am not sure what was to be done by those who had not finished (about half the group).

Finally, the teacher wrote up a homework task on the blackboard:-

And all the words and meaning.

At the same time, the teacher gave this oral instruction:

Write your homework. Now copy it.

The bell indicating the end of the period was ringing at the same time; the teacher was also preparing to leave the room. The girls stood up, looking somewhat confused. At this point I left, together with the teacher.

There was no joy in this class.

Teachers' perceptions of difficulties in large classes

1 **Discomfort**

I myself just feel overwhelmed by the number of students. I have to speak loudly: this makes me feel nervous and self-conscious. That exhausts me. I cannot be myself.

The size of the class alone is enough to weaken the strength and zeal which I earlier had for my teaching assignment.

2 **Control**

The students begin conversations on a private basis. Many of them seem to do this under the impression that their private talks will not disturb anybody because the classroom is so large.

3 **Evaluation**

Homework takes forever to correct.

4 **Individual attention**

Difficult to find out whether all the students are taken along with you, whether every student gains, whether the needs of every student are being satisfied or provided for.

5 **Learning**

I don't think I actually teach the largest classes anything.

Hywel Coleman. 1989. The relationship between large class research and large class teaching. SPELT Newsletter V, 1; 2-9.

First example

Advice

Out of 100 English sentences, 97 will be in the form of statements; and of the statement sentence-patterns the three-part pattern is the most frequently used:-

Daud / wrote / a book ...

Next in order of importance comes the pattern which begins **There**:-

There are three books on the table.

These two sentence-patterns are in the first rank of importance and must therefore be taught and drilled very clearly and very thoroughly. In this drill, because the pupil learns by saying and doing things himself, the teacher's object will be, not to make statements of his own all the time, but to get the pupils to make statements. This is done by asking questions:

Teacher : What is that?
Pupil : That is a red book.

F.G. French. 1948. The teaching of English abroad. Part 1: Aims and Methods. London: Oxford University Press. p 41.

Problem

Although this is only one third of the original class ... which is supposed to have had only 46 participants in all, I counted between 85 and 90 people present. ... [Teacher 12] was using **Kernel Lessons** Unit 3, Situations 4 and 5. His method consists of the following stages:

- reading (hurriedly and rather quietly) one of the stories accompanying the situations ...
- reading the story again
- asking the students, 'Do you understand?' which leads to some 'no' responses
- reading the story for a third time
- walking very slowly round the class, asking every single student individually a question concerning the passage

... The individual question asking and answering takes at least thirty minutes for each story (i.e. about thirty seconds per student). While all this is going on, the rest of the class is extremely restless and noisy - not surprisingly, since there is in effect no teacher present. This must be an extremely exhausting method for the teacher, and it is obviously frustrating and inefficient for the students.

HC, Classroom observation diary, Indonesia; Observation A.24, 16-11-81, 1st year Engineering Diploma Programme; Room F12, Teacher 12

Second example

Advice

If you are teaching other nationalities, make sure you pronounce your students' names correctly. If you do not they may begin to feel that you are hardly in a position to correct their pronunciation.

John Haycraft. 1986. An Introduction to English language teaching. 2nd ed. London: Longman. p 17.

It is always very important to find out about your students and the first step in this process is learning names. ... Observation has shown that a teacher's inaccurate use of, or failure to use students' names has a direct correlation with inattention and discipline problems. Knowing the students' names allows you to nominate students with confidence as well as to identify trouble makers. It also indicates that you care about what the students are doing and this helps to contribute to a positive learning environment. It does not matter how you go about learning names as long as you do it efficiently and put them to use quickly.

Rob Nolasco and Lois Arthur. 1988. Large classes. London: Macmillan. p 10.

Problem

Large classes make it difficult for me to do what I would like to do because:

> I can't get to know their names or to know them individually.

A teacher in Sénégal (McLeod 1989)

> I ... certainly will spend the whole year without knowing my students' names. Knowing pupil's name is of great importance in our culture.

A teacher in Japan (Coleman 1989)

> Sometimes I am not even sure if everybody is present.

A teacher in Nigeria

Third example

Advice

There is little point in your students working away if they are not going to learn as much as possible from any mistakes they make. The 'reward' for doing written work is the feeling that something is being learnt. If students sense that their teacher is too indifferent to correct efficiently, they follow his example and become reluctant to do any written work. ... In my experience, students prefer clear assessment and there is no need to use this invidiously. ... You underline mistakes so that the student can still see what he originally wrote. At the end, you add up the errors under each category, and list them. ... From intermediate level on, you can plan much of your teaching round these mistakes. Before returning the written work, go through the compositions or exercises, one by one, and comment on mistakes which you think are common to most of the class, without of course saying whose homework you are looking at.

Remember to return written work as soon as possible. If you delay, interest will wane. At the same time, the fact that you return written work promptly shows that you care.

John Haycraft. 1986. An Introduction to English language teaching. 2nd ed. London: Longman. p 123.

Problem

Large classes make it difficult for me to do what I would like to do because:

> It is difficult to mark all their scripts within a short period of time.
>
> It creates a great burden for the teacher to mark too many scripts of afterclass assignments - thereby making the teacher give less written assignments.
>
> Marking students' scripts after examination or assignments consumes a lot of my time.
>
> I also find it difficult to mark their assignments and examination, especially composition.
>
> Marking also is dreadful, so it limits the number of essay work I give.
>
> Much time is required to assess the learners.
>
> I find it difficult to correct students essays and assignments.
>
> More time is spent on thinking about marking the assignment and less time is spent on planning and varying the activities.
>
> Marking their written work takes longer and therefore no immediate reinforcement.
>
> Immediate feedback from looking at written exercises is difficult.

A group of teachers in Nigeria (average class size 53.8, maximum 200)

Causes of large classes: (sample developing country)

- classes are far larger in urban areas than in rural areas. In urban areas, parents are generally more aware of the importance of education. In rural areas, parents need their children's labour for agricultural activities
- there are not enough colleges and universities, because of the national economic situation
- employment opportunities in the state are limited. Consequently, many high school leavers with mediocre grades go back to school to repeat their last year in the hope of improving their grades and so getting into university. Thus, in the last year of high school, classes are very large
- related to the above is the fact that there is a very high failure rate in the university matriculation examination, and so many students stay on at high school to retake university entrance exams
- Parent Teacher Associations cannot afford to make their contribution to the cost of constructing new

buildings. The maintenance of existing buildings is the most they can manage

- a few years ago, English was suddenly reintroduced as the medium of instruction, after a break of twenty-five years. This means that many people failed both high school and college examinations simply because of the language problem, and so many classes at both levels are clogged with people who are re-taking examinations

- the ratio of high to middle schools is not appropriate, and so the high school classes get over-crowded

- the lack of employment opportunities in the state means that many young people want to emigrate. A good education is seen as a passport to finding work abroad, and so there is increasing demand for education locally. This means that classes get larger

- there are not enough qualified English teachers, and so classes have to be combined

- this is a border state and there is an intensive local smuggling trade. Although most adults in the border towns are involved in this trade themselves, they do not want their children to become involved and so force them to stay in full time education as long as possible. This pressure means that classes become larger

- drug abuse and drug trafficking are major problems in the border area, because drugs are actually grown in this region. Many parents therefore try to keep their children in full time education for as long as possible, so that they are 'occupied and disciplined'. Again, this means that classes get larger

- over several years, there has been an influx of refugees from across the nearby international border. However, neither national nor international bodies have paid attention to this, and so the refugees have had to fend for themselves without any extra facilities being provided for them. These people too want to make use of the local educational facilities, and so classes have become larger

- there is a problem of insurgency, with some rebel groups and underground movements operating in the area. Many parents keep their children in full time education 'until they are over age' as a way of preventing them from becoming involved in the rebel groups. Consequently, classes have become larger

- both at high school and at college, some young people deliberately spend two or three years in one class so that they can have repeated opportunities to participate in inter-school, inter-college and inter-state sports tournaments

- many parents keep their children in full time education for as long as possible so as to avoid teenage marriages.

Lancaster - Leeds language learning in large classes research project

Research reports

Since the Lancaster-Leeds language learning in large classes research project was set up almost three years ago, a number of research reports have become available.

We are now contacting everyone who has completed our questionnaires during the period of the research so far, everyone else who has indicated that they are interested in our work, and a number of other people who may be interested to learn of the activities of the project.

The first twelve research reports are listed overleaf. Generous assistance from the British Council, the Centre for British Teachers, and the Bell Educational Trust has enabled these project reports to be produced. Grants from these bodies have also contributed towards the distribution of the Project Reports. We are particularly grateful to Roger Bowers, Chris Kennedy and Alan Maley for their support.

The assistance which we have received from the three sponsoring bodies has enabled us to produce 800 copies of each project report.

The project reports will be distributed from Leeds, so please contact the University of Leeds, at the address given overleaf if you are interested.

Further project reports will be prepared in the future - indeed some have already been written - but production and distribution will depend on further funding becoming available.

1 Hywel Coleman. Learning and teaching in large classes: a bibliography. Version 11, 1989.

2 Hywel Coleman. The study of large classes.

3 Dick Allwright. Is class size a problem?

4 Hywel Coleman. How large are large classes? Version 3, 1989.

5 Virginia LoCastro. Large size classes: the situation in Japan.

6 Hywel Coleman. Large classes in Nigeria.

7 Nicki McLeod. What teachers cannot do in large classes.

8 Linda Peachey. Language learning in large classes: a pilot study of South African data.

9 Jacob Sabandar. Language learning in large classes in Indonesia.

10 Usha Sarangi. A consideration of methodological issues in analysing the problems of language teachers in large classes.

11 Hywel Coleman. Approaches to the management of large classes.

12 Dick Allwright. How important are lessons, anyway?

Project Co-ordinators

Hywel Coleman
Overseas Education Unit
School of Education
University of Leeds
Leeds LS2 9JT, UK

Telephone: 0532-334569

Dick Allwright
Department of Linguistics
and Modern English Language
University of Lancaster
Lancaster LA1 4YT, UK

Telephone: 0524-65201

Appendix 3
Institutional development: an ODA perspective

Some definitions

Institutional Development (ID) - strengthening of single institutions, or a set of institutions, in a sustainable way so that they can plan and carry out their functions more effectively and efficiently.

Projectization - combining a range of assistance, usually including a variety of forms of aid, into a single project over a specific time period, in accordance with an agreement with the recipient institution and government which identifies overall objectives, specific targets and timetables and the responsibilities of each of the parties involved.

Project framework - a planning document summarizing the structure and key elements of a project in matrix form. If used in the course of project design is an aid to improved project preparation by helping the preparer think through issues in a systematic way; also used as a project summary when the project is approved. In some projects the framework is reviewed and revised as part of the process of the project's evolution over time.

Project memorandum - a longer document forming the basis for the agreement between donor and recipient. Describes the project's objectives, content, background, justification (technical, economic, social etc.), financing, arrangements for implementation, monitoring and evaluation, risks and any special conditions to which approval is linked.

Blueprint approach - an approach to projects where the content and targets are fully specified at the start of the project and are not expected to be significantly changed.

Process approach - an approach to projects where content and targets are only provisionally identified at the start of the project and are expected to evolve over time within an agreed framework of monitoring and review. Often has emphasis on participation of local partners and beneficiaries.

Technical co-operation (TC) - often called manpower aid, refers mostly to provision of long and short term personnel in line or advisory positions; consultants; in-country, third-country and UK training.

Historical perspective

ODA was involved with strengthening institutions from its earliest days but the main emphasis was on training individuals for localization.

By the late 1970s the TC programme was the rump of long term manpower which had not yet been localized, and a scattering of assistance across a wide range of sectors. Little attention was paid to priorities or monitoring effectiveness.

There was an increasing perception by the end of the 1970s, especially in Africa, of institutional weakness as a major and growing constraint on development.

It was seen as necessary to focus efforts more on key priorities, to co-ordinate different forms of aid (capital, long- and short-term line and advisory staff, training consultancies) more closely and to plan, manage and monitor TC effectively.

There has been a much greater realization of the importance of strengthening institutions and of the need to ensure that improvements are sustainable once assistance has finished.

Implications of institutional development emphasis

- a **wider perspective** than before. We cannot just be concerned with part of an institution or even the whole institution in isolation since its effectiveness may be determined by wider issues, such as weak central management, budgetary problems or government policy
- this has made development efforts **more complex and involve more policy issues**
- seeking the best sustainable approach makes **identification of an approach more difficult** since what works best will partly reflect local political, social and economic circumstances
- such complexities necessitate both **more attention to understanding local circumstances** and accepting it may be impossible to plan a blueprint for change
- **participation of local partners** in determining what should be done is increasingly important, both because they may have a clearer view of what will work locally and why and because people are more likely to feel committed to a programme if they are actively involved in its design
- such ID is a **long term process**, so that donors may need to accept providing support for longer than is normal for projects. ID is **not a continuous or one way process**; it can also be **high risk**
- **flexibility is essential** but if allowed to become an excuse for whatever happens it will be increasingly difficult to justify continued support from donors who are accountable for good use of aid funds
- the **need for both flexibility and accountability** makes it important to be able to show that project design includes **arrangements for monitoring and revising plans.** Flexibility does not mean we can dispense with targets and accountability; **changes are expected but they should be in a clear framework** so that it can be seen why they are being made
- considering a broader framework leads to identifying more actions outside the control or responsibility of the donor or implementing agency. The project framework helps identify where the success of the project depends on such actions or decisions. This leads to **more emphasis on conditionality** and often

to a **staged approach** so that the donor does not commit substantial funds in advance of actions or decisions essential to making the project effective

- the nature of ID projects makes **personal skills and relationships at least as important as technical skills. Continuity of personnel is highly desirable.** This can be difficult on the donor side but is often even more of a problem with recipients. Momentum for change in an institution often depends heavily on a key individual whose departure can jeopardize the whole programme

Key elements of institutional appraisal

- review of the **external environment**
  - institutional structure; how this is controlled by/relates to other institutions, e.g. Government Ministries
  - how this works in practise
  - key policies influencing the effectiveness of the institution
- assessment of whether the **objectives** of the institution are defined and agreed
- review of the **structure** of the institution in relation to what it is supposed to be doing
- assessment of **management systems**, e.g. planning, budgeting and accounting, personnel management, supplies
- review of the **style and effectiveness of management** in practice
- review of **human resources:** numbers, skills, training and development, constraints on effectiveness
- review of the **financial position**

All this builds up a picture of the context in which a project is or will be working and of ID needs. It is usually difficult to get a good understanding either in a short time or wholly from outside, though an external perspective is important both to bring in skills and comparative experience and to facilitate the generation and expression of ideas from within the institution. This is part of the reason why a blueprint is generally not realistic. Recognizing this, initial appraisal is sometimes limited, leading to modest activities which provide some practical help while additional understanding, and often confidence, is built up.

Conditions of successful implementation

There are no simple prescriptions. Elements of the appraisal process have been mentioned and it will be clear that the stages of the project cycle (identification, appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation) involve a process of iteration rather than being conducted separately. A summary of points affecting successful implementation would include

- sufficiently high level commitment from government
- participation and support from within the institution, most critically at the top but also from others
- the general economic environment, in particular the severity of foreign exchange and budgetary constraints
- capacity to identify key constraints and for the project to respond to them
- availability and retention of adequate (not necessarily ideal) staff within the institution
- availability of good quality expatriate consultancy, TCO and training resources which are oriented to focussing on ID as the primary objective
- willingness of the donor to take a long term view

Is all the documentation necessary?

Completion of a framework and memorandum can be an oppressive chore.

Similarly increased emphasis on documented work plans and progress reports ought not to be a major burden over and above the planning and monitoring which should be going on anyway.

Appendix 4
Sustaining education projects overseas through training in Britain

Jim Morrison - Moray House SCEO

Recently I received a letter from the ELTO in charge of a Teacher Training and materials development project in francophone Africa, part of which read, 'we are trying to move towards severely practical training of the RSA sort for (country) TCTP recipients rather than encourage MAs.'

This raises a number of questions, only the first of which is, what do the TCTP recipients, assuming they have been consulted, think of this Gradgrindian new policy? More fundamentally

- what should be the aims of aid-funded overseas education projects?
- how does training fit in to the achievement of these aims?
- what kinds of training are most appropriate?

Education projects have two features in common

- they are funded for a finite period (three to five years, in theory)
- they aim to introduce improvement or innovation in a sector of the system, that is, to effect beneficial change

It is in these respects that projects differ from straightforward cadre training: the target is not simply people, but systems. At the end of the finite period, there are three main possibilities:

success	the innovation/improvement is sustained as an integral feature of the system, irrespective of subsequent changes in local personnel
temporary success	the innovation/improvement is sustained so long as the local personnel committed to it during the project implementation phase remain in post. But as they are removed (through posting, promotion, retiral) there is no fresh innovation, or the system even reverts to its former ways. (Varieties of such project-legacy have been aptly characterized by Roger Bowers as headless chickens, white elephants and dinosaurs)
failure	the innovation/improvement is sustained only as long as the project inputs: but the transplant is rejected as soon as the 'expert' leaves his educational surgery

The question, therefore, is this: what are the features in an educational project which serve most effectively to ensure the first result, once external inputs, in particular expatriate personnel, are withdrawn? If we knew the answer to this, then we could ensure that it was explicit in the design of any new project.

Nobody involved in British aid-funded education projects can be unaware of the high level of current concern with the sustainability factor in project proposals.

In 1989, therefore, the topic for the Dunford House Seminar was precisely this: **Managing ELT aid projects for sustainability.** Since 1978 the Dunford House Seminars, funded by ODA and organized by the British Council, have brought together people involved in ELT projects - overseas project personnel (formerly called KELTS, now ELTOs), British Council officers, ODA Education Advisers, staff from UK training institutions - to explore issues in project design, implementation and evaluation. These seminars have yielded a series of very useful reports, each concentrating on a specific professional issue and incorporating case studies.

As part of the 1989 Seminar, the participants - all of whom had first-hand experience in some aspect of ELT projects - were invited to consider the potential impact of six kinds of project input:

1 University links

2 post-project consultancy

3 training of host-country personnel

4 educational technology

5 British Council HQ professional advice and support

6 books

The case for each of these was argued by an advocate of that particular input and the participants were then asked, if they could choose only one of them, to vote for the one they believed to be most effective in contributing to project sustainability. As recorded in the Dunford Seminar Report 1989: 'training emerged by popular acclaim as the most powerful sustaining input ... what won the debate for training was its inclusivity, and the fact that sustainability, like successful projects in the last analysis, depends on people.'

The arguments adduced in favour of training derived, of course, from the perceptions of one involved in the provision of training and with a conviction of its crucial role; and assent to the arguments derived from the perceptions of British personnel involved in the design, field implementation or evaluation of projects, in other words, donor perceptions. It seemed to me that it would be useful to test them against those of the recipients, specifically those actually undergoing training in Britain.

A questionnaire was therefore administered to sixty TCTP trainees at Moray House, forty-five of them following MA or BEd courses in English teaching or

educational administration, and fifteen on specialist short courses in the same fields. Responses were then analysed to see how far recipient perceptions match those of donors. Before considering the result, it is first necessary to review what the donor perceptions are, that is, the arguments in favour of training.

Why is training the best investment?

A crucial element in the success of any project is **consensus**. It is not a feature explicitly provided for in the current ODA project framework, but it is one of six key factors identified by Havelock and Huberman (1983) as vital for successful innovation in education. An established means of achieving consensus is through securing the commitment of **stakeholders**, both existing and potential. 'Stakeholder' is the term used by Ron Mackay in his work on educational project evaluation to identify those people in a project whose commitment is crucial to its success, and whose identification should be an early priority in negotiation between provider and client. (The World Bank refers to this as 'maximizing beneficiary participation'.) Stakeholders, like the rest of humanity, tend to be motivated by incentives: and in British aid-funded educational projects experience shows that a powerful, if not the most powerful, incentive is the prospect of training, particularly overseas, i.e. UK training.

Thus, Paul Woods said in an article based on his experience as a KELT in charge of an ELT project: 'We can help to ensure that loyalty and morale are maintained by providing incentives. In Sierra Leone, a major incentive has been the opportunity for further study overseas.' The student survey bears this out and yields some insight into the sub-components within this incentive.

Where is training best undertaken?

I have recently heard it argued, in support of a case for moving resources into distance education, that overseas (UK) training is less effective than in-country training because it removes the trainee from the very problems the training is supposed to help him address. Indeed, a recent paper by Caillods and Postlethwaite (1989) goes further and suggests that in-country in-service training may be less effective than what they call 'on-service' training for similar reasons; that is, the trainee should not even be taken out of his actual job, far less out of the country. I would argue that it surely depends on what the training is **for**. There is a role for all three types of training - on-service, in-service and overseas - and in education projects which aim to influence systems as well as individual behaviour, I would argue that there are positive advantages to overseas training in Britain.

The arguments for training in Britain

Incentive: the prospect of overseas training is an incentive not only to those selected, but for all potential selectees. To quote Paul Woods again: 'the opportunity afforded to the best performers ensures that other teachers perform at their best in the hope of being themselves selected for further training.' Last year, when I was conducting a pilot in-service training course in Nigeria, this factor contributed powerfully to the commitment of all participants.

Process: it is a narrow view of training that perceives it exclusively in terms of acquired skills and knowledge/content. Especially for those who will be trainers in their turn, the UK experience of the training process itself is valuable: how a training department is organized and resourced, how course quality is monitored and evaluated. These are not models that can readily be transported in a brief-case.

Perceptions: people have a tendency, regrettable but real, to believe their problems are unique. Sustained contact with students from other developing countries facing similar problems, exploring with them alternative solutions, the chance to come out of the trees and see the wood together: these are features of UK training rated very highly by students at Moray House.

Pressures: anyone who has conducted in-service training overseas, particularly for key personnel, knows how difficult it can be for them to escape local pressures, e.g. of their substantive job, of administration, of family demands. It is unrealistic to suppose that anxieties about these are totally left behind, but it is true that actual disruption to training is largely eliminated.

Personal enrichment: it is not only those professionally involved in English language training who place a high value on first-hand experience of British life and culture, and the opportunity to develop their communicative skills in English through immersion in an English-speaking environment. Evidence from the student survey indicates that these are among the most important factors in incentive (indeed, rated more highly by many than the experience of UK staff). The value of this aspect is acknowledged in the concluding paragraph of the recent ODA publication Into the nineties: an education policy for British aid: 'Training is more than simply study at a British institution. It offers the opportunity for an overseas study fellow to travel here, and in doing so, to move out of one political, cultural, economic and often linguistic environment to absorb a new range of experiences, impressions and ideas. Overseas study fellows who have managed to cope with a course at a British higher education institution return home with a mastery of both everyday and academic English which will see them through the rest of their working lives ... Personal friendships will be made which in many cases will last far into the future and lead to enduring contacts with people in this country. The twin gifts of study and travel are among the greatest that we as a country have the opportunity to confer on others.' Nor is the advantage only to the trainees. I was in India recently as part of a four-man ODA consultancy on forestry education. What struck all of us most forcibly was the degree to which our access to information and facilities was enhanced whenever we were in contact with former students - now in senior forestry positions - of two of the team. The appreciation of their training in UK, in some cases many years ago, made these returnees an invaluable access point to the system we were investigating.

Education: I think it is also important, in these days of macho-management, quantifiability and value for money, to keep in sight the value of education, education as opposed to training. Of late, I detect a doctrinaire shift towards specialist short course training: the case cited from francophone Africa is only one example. If, as I believe they should do, the aims of educational projects overseas are to change or improve systems to make innovation effective, then there is, surely, a need to expose some host country personnel to a richer experience than 'severely practical training of the RSA sort'?

In a well-designed project, there will of course be a place for specialist short course training, both overseas and in-country. There is the obvious need to exploit the expertise of returned UK-trained personnel, to institutionalize training provision in the host country (according to the World Bank, an area of notable under-achievement), to increase the community of stakeholders, to give credibility to consultancies and links. But it is interesting to note that in the student survey the factors other than 'severely practical' were rated even more highly by those on short courses than by those on MA programmes.

Recipient perceptions

Which brings me back to the survey itself. How **do** the perceptions of trainees about the value of UK training match those of the training providers? The questionnaire and detailed analyses are appended, so I shall simply summarize what seem to me to be the significant findings.

Table 1 demonstrates the strength of the trainees' conviction that the training they are receiving could not effectively be carried out full-time in their home country. Those on specialist short courses are even more emphatic about this than those on degree programmes. The rejection of in-country in-service institution based training, or on-the-job training is overwhelming.

Table 2 indicates their assessment of the relative disadvantages and advantages of UK training. Apart from demonstrating their view that the latter greatly outweigh the former, the hierarchy of advantages - as it relates to the feasibility of providing similar benefits in-country - is particularly revealing. The trainees' hierarchy of UK training advantages is

1 access to library and other resources not available at home

2 opportunity to share and compare problems with colleagues from other countries/system

3 the process of training, i.e. experiencing how training is conducted in Britain

4 opportunity to experience British life and culture

5 experience of staff providing the training

6 developing of communicative skills in English

7 career advantage of a British qualification

8 freedom from pressures of the job

9 freedom from family demands on time

Again, though scores are high across the board, the highest scores are recorded by those on specialist short courses. The congruence of perceptions between providers and recipients is, obviously, very high. The only disadvantage rating higher than its corresponding advantage relates to anxiety about family at home, in which there may be a message for student support services.

Table 3 indicates the trainees' perception of what is the most effective project input, apart from British personnel. Their order of preference is

1 training in Britain

2 link with a British academic institution

3 consultancy visits from British experts

4 book presentations

5 training in the home country

Again, training in Britain is rated most highly by those on specialist short courses. (They reverse the order of the last two items, but otherwise the order is consistent.)

Implications for British training institutions

For training institutions in Britain, there are clear messages here about what contributes to quality from the recipients' perspective, and what must be done to maintain quality.

First, is the need to provide a high level of library and resources provision. This, in my own experience, involves not only the provision of relevant materials (books, journals, country-specific collections, case studies) but awareness on the part of library and resource centre staff of the particular needs and problems of overseas students, for example, in the period set for short loans.

Second, is the need to ensure a rich experience of British life and culture. This is not an inevitable by-product of the student's sojourn in Britain: it needs planning and the commitment of resources. Along with this, though separate from it, is the need for generous provision of counselling and welfare support.

Third, is the importance of explicit involvement for the students in the whole area of 'process' : through student involvement in course committees, academic sub-boards, validation procedures. At Moray House, for example, students of educational administration are admitted to international and external validation panels as observers.

Fourth, there is the obligation to ensure that staff involved in overseas courses have the kind of experience that students have a right to expect. This is not confined to professional expertise in the subject area. It includes familiarity, regularly maintained, with the

realities of the overseas classroom; it also means experience of the kind of problems overseas students face in studying in Britain and the ability to anticipate them. This is possibly even more important in the case of specialist short courses, who are here for less time, than in 'long' courses. Given our staffing and planning problems, this can create difficulties but recurrent academic courses and specialist short courses must have equal access to the best we can offer: short-term course emphatically does **not** imply short-term staff.

Most of our institutions now have in place a system of performance indicators and, within these, explicit provision for monitoring client satisfaction. Finding out what the client thinks about the service provided is fundamental: the survey here reported is very small-scale, but within BATROE we have the capability and the interest (including self-interest!) to investigate overseas perceptions of what constitutes quality in British training provision on a wider and more systematic scale.

Conclusion

At a seminar at the British Council in March, a panel of three wise men from the ODA, the FCO and the Joint Assistance Office explained to an audience representing the spectrum of the British ELT resource the principles by which training proposals for Eastern Europe will be assessed. These included the familiar sustainability, value for money, local commitment quantifiability, amenability to evaluation. But, prior to all of these, it was repeatedly stressed, is the imperative of establishing what it is the host country partner really wants.

There is no doubt in my mind that one of the things they will certainly want is training in Britain. It is up to all of us in this Association, not only to provide it, as effectively and economically as we can, but to be active in promoting its centrality and value.

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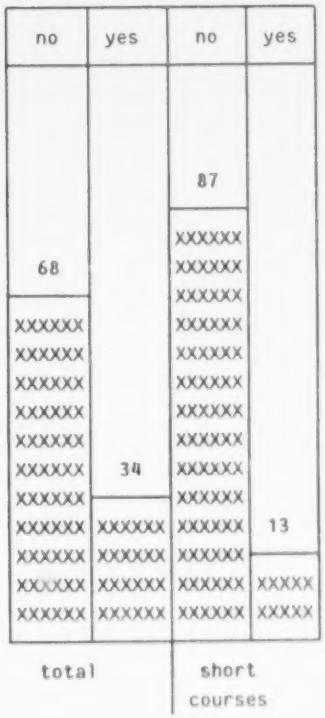
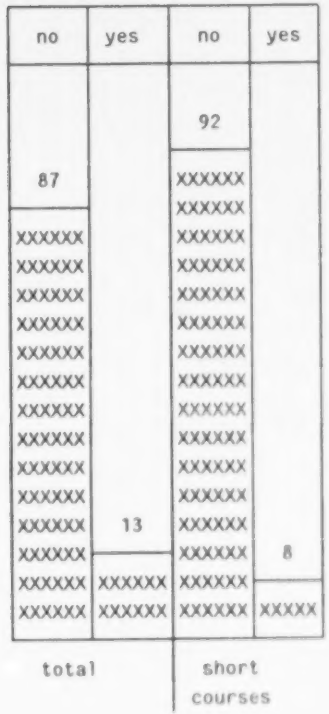
Overseas Development Administration: Into the Nineties: an education policy for British aid, ODA, London (1990)

In your opinion, could the training you are receiving be carried out equally effectively in your home country?

full-time, in an academic institution



part-time, in-service, in an academic institution



part-time 'on the job' through, e.g. seminars and workshops

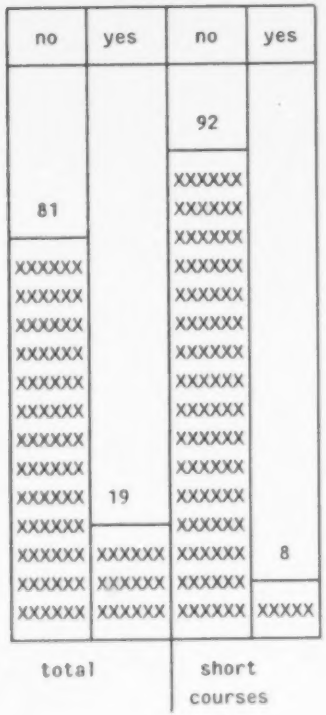
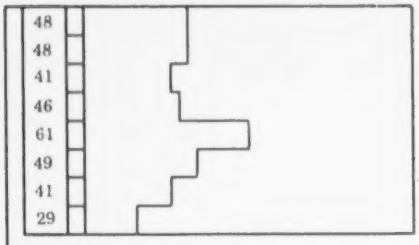
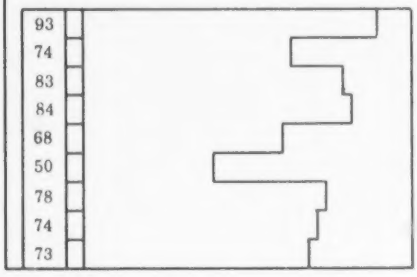


Table 1: Viability of in-country alternatives to training in Britain

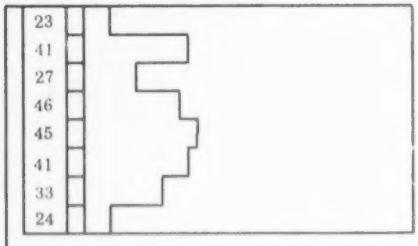
Table 2: Relative disadvantages and advantages of training in Britain



2.1 lack of access to data (statistics, syllabuses, etc.)
2.2 staff do not have detailed knowledge of your country and its systems
2.3 lack of access to relevant schools
2.4 loss of contact with the real world demands of your job
2.6 anxiety about family at home
2.7 environmental problems (e.g. climate, food)
2.8 anxiety about possible failure
2.9 language difficultues (having to do everything in English)



3.1 access to library and other resources not available at home
3.2 experience of staff providing the training
3.3 the process of training, i.e. experiencing how training is conducted in Britain
3.4 opportunity to share and compare problems with colleagues from other countries/systems
3.6 freedom from the pressures of the job
3.7 freedom from family demands on time
3.8 opportunity to experience British life and culture
3.9 development of communicative skill in English
3.10 career advantage of a British qualification



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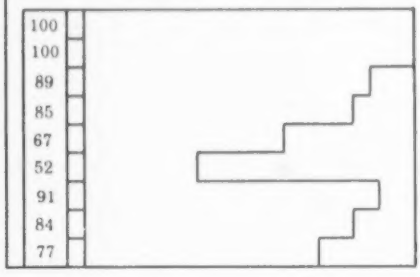

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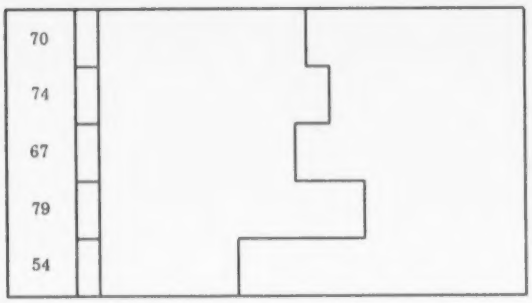
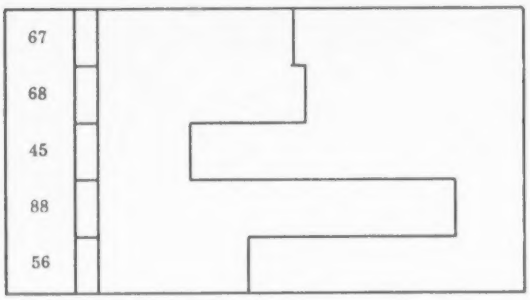
3.6 freedom from the pressures of the job
3.7 freedom from family demands on time
3.8 opportunity to experience British life and culture
3.9 development of communicative skill in English
3.10 career advantage of a British qualification

Table 3: Relative effectiveness of British inputs to education projects



1 consultancy visits from British experts
2 link with a British academic institution
3 book Presentations
4 training in Britain
5 training in your own country



1 consultancy visits from British experts
2 link with a British academic institution
3 book presentations
4 training in Britain
5 training in your own country

Planning for sustainability in in-country training projects

Generalizations

Cause of breakdown	Strategies to avoid breakdown and promote sustainability
• Lack of focus - in objectives - in executive authority	a project must have clearly defined objectives a large project may be better handled as a cluster of smaller projects executive authority must be lodged with a stated person or small group
• Lack of an adequate management structure	there must be an adequate project management structure which is evident to and accepted by all the parties concerned
• Lack of motivation/ incentives for participants in the project	a project plan should include means of motivating both the project deliverers and the project receivers
• Lack of adequate evaluation and/or reliable feedback	a project plan must include procedures for regular evaluation and allow enough flexibility to emend the project design in the light of feedback
• Lack of awareness or interest in the project	to ensure the success of a project everyone concerned with it must be informed, involved and, if possible, enthused about it
• Over-anxiety about project materials	where the work of a project depends on materials such as books or radios, the people accountable for the materials must have the confidence to use them, even lose them
• Lack of follow-up	a project plan should allow for maintenance work, e.g. replacing materials a project plan should aim to develop long-term spin-offs from the main project, e.g. self-study packages, better PRESET, T support groups
• Lack of commitment by key people	project planners should ensure that key people, and people in key posts, are prepared to support the work of the project
• The degree of ELT innovation is too big	the project should plan to deliver only the degree of innovation which the receiving system can tolerate
• The general educational innovation is too big	project planners must take account of how the ELT innovation fits in with the general educational ethos and practice of the receiving system
• The language skills of the English teachers are low	the project plan must include development/ support for teachers' language knowledge and skills as well as their professional knowledge and skills general educational innovation may be better achieved through some other subject
• The mode of project transmission is not suitable	project planners must examine all aspects of the chosen mode of project transmission in the local context

Appendix 5
Training for sustainability: co-operative development

Julian Edge

Learning and knowledge:	experience, understanding, expression
Co-operative attitude:	respect, empathy, genuineness
Development through:	exploration, discovery,
using:	action
	active listening
	reflecting
	focusing
	thematizing
	challenging
	disclosing
	goal-setting
	trialling
	planning
which will feature:	open questions
	commentaries
	silence

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